CHILD STUDY

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CONTENTS

Editorial - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 38

Habit Training as a Force in Personality Development - - - - - - - - - - - - - 39

Psychotherapy in Childhood - - - - - - - - 42

Intelligence Testing Today - - - - - - - - 46

Education at the Crossroads - - - - - - - - 50

Parents' Questions - - - - - - - - - - - - 53

Suggestions for Study - - - - - - - - - - - 55

Science Contributes:
Feeding Problems in Early Childhood - - - - 56
by Benjamin Spock, M.D., and Mabel Huschka, M.D.

A Tribute to Professor Sigmund Freud - - - - 59
by A. A. Brill, M.D.

Book Reviews - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 60

Children's Books - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 61

News and Notes - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 63

Radio Programs for Children - - - - - - - - 66

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HEADLINES

This issue of "Child Study" offers a condensed presentation of the content of a Two-Day Institute held by the Child Study Association last November.

Participating in the Institute were:

On *Habits and Character:* Anna W. M. Wolf, Child Study Association of America; Leslie B. Hohman, M.D., Associate in Psychiatry, Johns Hopkins Medical School; Lawrence S. Kubie, M.D., Associate in Neurology, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, Associate Psychiatrist, Mt. Sinai Hospital, New York City.

On *Psychotherapy in Childhood:* Frank J. O'Brien, M.D., Director, Bureau of Child Guidance, New York City Board of Education; David M. Levy, M.D., Psychiatrist, Lecturer, New School for Social Research; Leo Kanner, M.D., Associate Professor of Psychiatry, the Johns Hopkins Hospital; Caroline Zachry, Chairman, Committee on the Study of Adolescence, Progressive Education Association.

On *Intelligence Testing Today:* Goodwin Watson, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University; Walter S. Neff, Department of Psychology, College of the City of New York; Irving D. Lorge, Executive Officer, Institute of Educational Research, Division of Psychology, Teachers College, Columbia University.

On *Education at the Crossroads:* W. Carson Ryan, President, Child Study Association; Lyman Bryson, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University; Scott Buchanan, Dean, St. John's College, Annapolis, Md.; Vivian T. Thayer, Educational Director, Ethical Culture Schools.

The material was prepared for CHILD STUDY by Mrs. Aline B. Auerbach, Mrs. Estelle Barnes Clapp, Mrs. Anne P. Edelman, Dr. Benjamin C. Gruenberg, Mrs. Sidonie Matsner Gruenberg, Mrs. Irma W. Hewlett, and Mrs. Anna W. M. Wolf.

The Spring issue of CHILD STUDY (mid-April) will discuss the question: "Are the Cardinal Virtues Out of Date?"

CONTROVERSIAL AREAS IN TODAY'S THINKING ABOUT CHILDREN

THIS ISSUE of CHILD STUDY opens up for examination the controversial ideas which were discussed at the Child Study Association's Institute last November concerning four important areas of our thinking about children: Habits and Character, Psychotherapy in Childhood, Mental Measurement, and Progressive Education. These were presented by speakers who represented a variety of approaches. In thus offering to our readers different shades of opinion, the editors are aware of certain dangers, but they believe also that more good than harm must result from a frank examination of all ideas, however we may disagree with them.

WE ARE, therefore, offering our readers a critical review of these sessions setting forth, we hope, both sides of the questions but attempting also an interpretation and evaluation according to our own point of view and our own experience with children.

MUCH is being written currently deploring the rôle of the "expert" in child guidance and exhorting parents to exert their "common sense" as against expert advice. The assumption in these writings seems to be that the two are incompatible. This is not the case.

IN THE realm of human relationships there are no certainties, no absolute rules—whether of "common sense" or "expert" derivation—that can be followed slavishly to bring about certain desired results. The findings of experts have nevertheless shed much light upon child behavior and family relationships and parents dealing with live children and living situations cannot afford to ignore these findings. Neither need they accept them whole, but subject them to a process of adaptation and modification to serve their own needs and purposes.

THE FACT that the experts sincerely disagree, that they even offer at some points diametrically opposing advice, need not be disconcerting. Rather these fundamental differences in approach to the problems of child guidance constitute a challenge to parents to examine and evaluate for themselves what is being offered and thus to be guided not by any ready rule-of-thumb but by thoughtful attitudes and applications, thoughtfully arrived at. This process is, it seems to us, not didactic teaching but an educative experience. Which "side" we take in these controversies will be determined in large part by our own native disposition and basic philosophy of life.

THE EDITORS

Habit Training as a Force in Personality Development

Chairman: Anna W. M. Wolf
Speakers: Leslie B. Hohman, M.D., Lawrence S. Kubie, M.D.
Parent Discussants: Ruth R. Colegrove, Mrs. Reginald H. Colley, Mrs. Edward F. Hartung, Mrs. George E. Ladd, Jr., Elinor G. Leeb, Mrs. Dean K. Worcester

To what extent can character traits be instilled through habit training? Rewards and punishments—when are they useful? The part played by unconscious forces in influencing character; by the child's early relationships within the family group.

THE title of this discussion looks harmless enough. Actually it represents a controversy which reflects some of the most fundamental differences in psychologic thinking today. Although it is a difference which must ultimately be fought by professionals, it is futile to say that the layman must stand aside. For the layman's, and particularly the parent's, interest in psychiatry is something more valid than mere curiosity or meddling. Parents, more than any other group of people, find that their most vital interests are at stake in this field. Psychiatry, after all, is very close to education, and parents first and foremost are educators. In their daily experiences with their children they are forced, whether they intend to or not, to test different methods and concepts and to come to some conclusion as to their usefulness. How *do* children learn? How can we teach children to be courteous and kindly, to show courage in the face of hardship, initiative and independence in new situations, to have a sense of responsibility toward their undertakings? Are these traits wholly a matter of habit training and "conditioning," as laboratory experimenters condition animals to certain kinds of behavior? Is behavior controlled and prescribed by the simple application of rewards and punishments, by seeing to it that desirable behavior is always rewarded and that undesirable behavior is not?

In brief, Dr. Hohman's answer to these last two questions is "Yes." Dr. Kubie's is "No."

No matter how completely experts differ on the specific problem of how personality is born and develops, the discussion between the representatives of these opposing schools brings out the fact that there are certain agreements which are fundamental. First, that early childhood is a peculiarly important period, and that the attitudes and behavior patterns formed at this time are related in some profound way to later adult personality; second, that early childhood is a time when changes are effected most easily, and that thoughtful therapeutic efforts expended at this time are definitely rewarding.

To quote Dr. Hohman: "The child has come to be a field for active and constructive therapy. Parents have been convinced by us that the child is not caught in a hopeless morass of heredity and faulty constitution. All of us are agreed that consistent, prolonged treatment is efficacious."

Thus far Dr. Kubie would be in complete agreement, but the agreement stops sharply at this point. Just what type of therapy should be practiced by professional psychiatrists is a question on which the Freudians and non-Freudians differ radically in both theory and practice. Still more important for the parent is the fact that every child presents behavior problems from time to time, even if he is not thought of as a problem child. Willy-nilly parents have to adopt attitudes and plans of procedure for these problems which exert profound influences on the pattern of the child's developing personality. Even letting a child alone is a positive plan and can have important consequences.

Thus Dr. Hohman states his position:

"I see the child as a biologic creature who differs from other biologic creatures in that he has a more complicated and more highly organized nervous system. . . . Recent work on the formation of habits in animals and children demonstrates to me that the influences which shape these patterns are not far distant from the old-fashioned theory of rewards and punishments. The activity which is followed by no reward, or by punishment, will fade out."

From this it follows, according to Dr. Hohman's

view, that all that is needed in the management of young children is the application of this simple formula, and that if it is strictly applied it cannot fail to meet all situations. Parents must see to it that whenever a child shows undesirable behavior, such as being afraid of the dark, or a tendency to excessive questioning, or shyness, tempers and the like, the thing to do is to take care to keep these things from getting him satisfactions. Such satisfactions come most frequently in the form of maternal attention, emotional concern, and sympathy. If, however, these are conscientiously excluded, the behavior in the child which was designed to evoke these attentions will soon disappear. On the other hand, desirable traits can be built into children by systematic training in the specific skill needed, if each new step toward success can be accompanied by satisfaction, praise and approval. Thus a child who has a tendency to be overtalkative, anxious, and apprehensive is best treated by ignoring his talk and training him in manual skills of all kinds. In other words, what is required here is more practice in doing things and less and less in talking and word manipulation.

There is no reason to suppose that the Freudians have any quarrel with animal psychology and the laboratory method. Their approach to the problems of behavior comes from a different angle, yet in common with all scientific thinkers they regard the human animal as governed by the biologic laws of behavior just as truly as cats and guinea pigs. But differences in complexity cannot be ignored; they may make all the difference in the world. One of the most curious and unique things about man, for example, is that he has been able to develop something commonly called conscience, which obviously makes an enormous difference between him and other animals and complicates man's whole existence. Possessing a conscience, he makes distinctions between what is "good," according to the standards of the other humans he lives among, and what is "bad," and will cause him to be unacceptable to them. Fearing his own bad impulses, he seeks to eliminate them, but too often succeeds, apparently, merely in forgetting and repressing them. This whole limbo of repressed and forgotten, but by no means inactive, impulses, has been designated by Freud as the unconscious.

"Frankly," says Dr. Hohman, "I do not work with any theory of the unconscious."

Equally frankly, Dr. Kubie finds it clinically necessary to do so.

"I agree with Dr. Hohman completely," he says, "that every habit has a purpose. But Dr. Hohman believes no habit persists unless it is rewarded. I suspect that here is our major point of disagreement. For instance, if a child gets out of bed at night and quietly steals into the living-room, and you lead him gently but firmly back again, but he returns again, and the procedure is repeated from one to twenty times, there is no question but that one of the obvious gains which he has attained by this behavior is some measure of attention. This attention is just as likely to be painful as pleasant, for the parent who will put up with such behavior indefinitely instead of punishing the child is rare. Parents certainly cannot indulge this kind of behavior. But to say that the final purpose for the child consists in winning attention is to assume a great deal. The proof of what I say is the fact that, even if you withdraw every external reward and induce punishment, the striking thing is that even in the face of punishment or pain or no obvious reward the symptom will still persist in a certain number of cases. I do not know why Dr. Hohman has turned his back on this, because it is a commonplace of psychiatric study. It is a fact that psychopathic symptoms are in themselves painful to the patient, and yet they persist despite the pain."

FOR Dr. Kubie and for many others, this reward-punishment situation is not as simple as it seems, and parents could multiply his example a hundred times. Perhaps a great many of the vagaries of childhood can often enough be met by just such a formula as Dr. Hohman offers. Assuredly it should be tried first; it represents the common sense of pedagogy both at home and at school. Every teacher knows the trick of making the troublesome child the class monitor, so that his "satisfactions" come to him in legitimate rather than illegitimate ways. Every parent knows that ignoring refusals to eat, ignoring tempers, and even certain physical complaints, thus robbing them of their attention-getting purposes works wonders in a great many cases. This is the ABC of child management. But parents and teachers alike know also that this formula does not always work. They are confronted continuously with children who, despite an amiable and reasonable approach, despite the most intelligent application of the principle of rewarding the desirable reactions and penalizing the undesirable ones, persist mysteriously in their misbehavior.

Nor, it should be added, are these children always markedly neurotic—neurotic, that is, in the sense that they are likely to go through life unhappy and maladjusted. It would be more accurate and more illuminating to see them rather as essentially normal chil-

dren showing certain temporary neurotic symptoms. Everyone who lives closely with children and follows them through the successive stages of their development is impressed again and again with the continuous appearance and disappearance of stubborn attitudes and persistent repetitive behavior which bring pain rather than pleasure in their wake. Take the girl of four who pushes her baby brother down until he cries. It brings a momentary pleasure perhaps, but punishment follows, disfavor from her mother, the pangs of her own conscience. Or consider one child in a family who is amiable and outgoing. She has plenty of friends, everyone likes her and responds quickly to her friendly ways. And her sister is just the opposite. She sulks, says mean things; people avoid her. She suffers from her isolation. The consequences of her attitudes are painful, *not* rewarding, yet her behavior persists. "Perverse," we say, or, more accurately perhaps, "she is looking for punishment," "she is her own worst enemy."

Dr. Kubie calls attention to this highly important mental mechanism by which an individual genuinely looks for punishment. This has been a commonplace of psychiatric observation for many years, though Freud was the first to study it in detail and to recognize it as among the fundamental problems of human behavior. Assuredly, as Dr. Hohman says, every habit has a purpose, but there are always certain individuals for whom the purpose turns out to be pain, and where pain itself becomes a satisfaction and a reward. This problem of pain as satisfaction is one of the most baffling which the psychiatrist has to face. His job is not only to recognize and understand the situation for what it is but to ferret out the secret and hidden sources of this apparently perverse form of satisfaction.

MANY parents, despite the fact that they are not professionals, are inevitably compelled to face and deal somehow with these same problems and deal with them, moreover, with their own emotions heavily involved. Often the best they can do is to recognize these transient neuroses of childhood for what they are, not to aggravate them by wholly fruitless efforts at rational "training" or retraining of a pattern which by its very nature cannot yield to this approach, and strive instead to make the conditions of the child's whole life as healthy and satisfaction-giving as is possible. In most cases, unless parents grossly mismanage, children do recover—just as they recover from measles. But the parent should be ready to seek professional help when the years pass and they find that the neurotic symptoms are still persisting.

Dr. Hohman suggests treating children who are afraid to be alone in the dark simply by turning out the light, closing the door, making it clear that the fears, nightmares or terrors will be received wholly without satisfaction-giving sympathy from parents and that no outcry will get the child the attention which is the purpose of this behavior. This treatment, he says, cures the child in from one to three weeks without any disastrous consequences.

Dr. Kubie, on the other hand, states that "it is assuming a great deal" to assert that attention with its attendant satisfactions is the real purpose of the child's behavior and suggests instead that the child who is genuinely afraid of the dark is "less and less related to external reality and more and more related to internal imaginary conditions." Dr. Hohman's analysis thus seems to him to be much oversimplified and his methods inadequate because they seek to control wholly through the use of external rewards and punishments, behavior which arises essentially as the result of internal conflicts.

It seems to us that parents today are increasingly exasperated by the kind of counsel which tells them to go home and "ignore" misbehavior, or to stop giving sympathy and satisfaction to a child who hates the baby, or to "train" their non-social children to be happy playing baseball instead of reading or listening to the radio. In very many cases they have tried all this and they know the limitations of such efforts. The child often turns out to be the proverbial horse led to water. Most parents start out in their parenthood with high hopes for the efficacy of reasonableness and good training, and most of them have been conscientious. They have praised and smiled upon good behavior, they have punished where punishment was due. Why, they wonder, does a three-year-old approached in a spirit of love and reason, become angry and hostile, full of "no's" and "I won'ts" at the most reasonable requests, jealous of brothers and sisters who have no more toys and no more affection than he has, or subject to night terrors, food refusals, bed wetting?

The question which parents have to decide and decide not as hangers-on to a professional "school," or popular cult, but wholly as persons facing practical and immediate tasks in their own homes, is which point of view is likely to prove most useful. In trying to gain an understanding of what is going on in their children, is it the view that the child's

(*Continued on page 68*)

Psychotherapy in Childhood

Chairman: **Frank J. O'Brien, M.D.**
Speakers: **David M. Levy, M.D., Leo Kanner, M.D., Caroline Zachry**
Parent Discussants: Mrs. George Van T. Burgess, Pauline Rush Fadiman, Irma W. Hewlett, Mrs. Franklin E. Parker, Jr., Mrs. Donald Pratt

When is a child a problem child? Is common sense all that is necessary in the management of children? Limitations of common sense. The child guidance expert—various types for various circumstances. The school's responsibility for the child's emotional development.

PARENTS and teachers and all others who deal with children's needs in various fields have shown great interest in the increased use of psychiatric treatment for children's behavior problems. To meet this growing interest, to explore the therapeutic field as it functions today and to examine its objectives and limitations was the purpose of the Institute session devoted to the topic of "Psychotherapy in Childhood." The contributions of the three specialists, all in close contact with problem children in their daily work, present a stimulating picture of the work as it is being carried on today.

"IT HAS been variously estimated that from fifty to seventy per cent of all children brought to pediatricians offer problems of behavior as leading complaints," says Dr. Leo Kanner. "Puzzled parents come for advice regarding the eating, sleeping and elimination habits of their offspring, real or assumed, delay in the pace of development, display of fear, jealousy or anger, questions of emancipation and conformity, restlessness and other manifestations commonly spoken of as signs of 'nervousness,' and worry occasioned by poor progress or misconduct at school. At the Harriet Lane Home, the pediatric department of the Johns Hopkins Hospital, there is a steady flow of referrals from the wards, outpatient divisions, special clinics and the private consultation unit to the Children's Psychiatric Service. The children are not in any way pre-selected on the basis of suitableness or unsuitableness for a particular mode of investigative or therapeutic procedure. They come from the homes of the rich and the poor, from sophisticated and untutored families, with high and low intelligence quotients, with sound and variously affected bodies, accompanied by stable and unstable, worried and indifferent, calm and agitated, complaining, accusing and excusing elders. They are carried in by the waves and breakers of life itself. They all have in common the fact that parents, teachers, physicians, social workers, the children themselves, at all events *somebody* is disturbed or baffled about something pictured in performance, affect and group relationship."

What kind of help do parents want for these children and what can they expect to get? Dr. Kanner proceeds to answer these questions with a critical analysis of psychotherapy today as he sees it. In the realm of behavior disorders, the layman finds himself confused and "often pathetically ensnared in a nightmarish network of opinions, claims, pronouncements, generalizations, theories and terminologies." There is a great need for concreteness and clarification. The dictionaries, in defining the term psychotherapy, speak of "mental treatment" and refer to certain methods such as hypnotism, waking suggestion and psychoanalysis. But this is obviously not what parents have in mind when they bring their children for treatment and advice. What they really want is to have the therapist understand the child and his basic difficulties, and lay out a long range plan that will take into consideration the child's physical and emotional needs, his abilities and limitations, as well as the opportunities and limitations of the family situation and of the community.

The child is "the central nucleus, though by no means the sole recipient, of therapeutic attention and effort." Dr. Kanner emphasizes how important it is in each instance to determine the essential factors of the situation, and how one must interpret these *from* the facts, rather than read any one point of view *into* the facts. The difficulty may be chiefly within the child, outside of the child, or both within and without. Physical factors must be considered first, as well as the problems of personality and of family relationships. In addition to the routine medical, psychological and environmental investigations, it is often necessary to give the child an opportunity to express and work out his feelings and attitudes in play situations. Dr. Kanner feels, however, that there is too much of a

trend to translate children's performances categorically into standardized sets of the examiner's own preferred symbols, and that the "deep" analysis and "deep" therapy associated with this are "supposed to have attained finality of motivation, etiologic omniscience and, given limitless time, therapeutic omnipotence. . . . The psychiatric captain, finding a vessel in troubled waters, is told to send its crew home and take the vessel down to the bathosphere for several months or years, with the faith that such 'deep' therapy will help the vessel to conquer the seas forever after." Dr. David Levy, however, points out that he does not feel that deep therapy is necessary under all circumstances, but that our experience has led us to believe this method of treatment to be necessary in certain cases.

Dr. Kanner believes that while family relationships need not be probed too deeply with the purpose of fitting them into psychoanalytic concepts, nevertheless, the child's family is a very vital influence on his attitudes. He makes a plea "in defense of parents, the most abused people of our generation" who have been confused and bewildered by such a mass of conflicting rules, instructions and precepts from all sources that they "tend to sweep genuineness and naturalness out of the house." The basic idea of preventive hygiene, that you avoid difficulties by acting in such ways so as to effect a satisfactory way of life, he feels has been distorted beyond recognition. Parents now think of prevention only in terms of avoiding disaster and act largely through fear.

Discussion of this point brings out that it is an intrinsic part of psychiatric therapy to correct such notions and to relieve the resulting tensions, both in case work with individuals and in general parent education. We feel that this point is one which cannot be overemphasized, which can be of great help to parents in its wholesome emphasis on the need for positive rather than negative mental hygiene.

Practical psychotherapy, Dr. Kanner concludes, is "the organized treatment of a person in trouble, uniquely adapted and readapted to a unique person and a unique situation. . . . Its ideal goal is the adjustment of all that is maladjusted in an individual child and his specific environment; its working endeavor is the adjustment of all that can be adjusted at a given moment." It includes work with the child, with the family and with the community. It treats the child's needs, gropings and errors, and also the parents' attitudes and perplexities. "It begins and proceeds with that humility which springs from a respect for realities and with that warmth which flows from a genuine desire to help those who come for help, with a realization of the abilities and shortcomings of the human species and an unperturbed effort to maintain a redeeming sense of proportion."

WITH this as a background, Dr. David M. Levy discusses the specific methods of psychotherapy as used in the direct treatment of children, and, through some illustrative case material, indicates the types of situations in which each kind of therapy is used. He first describes *environmental or milieu therapy*. This is the type employed in cases where the child's difficulty has come out of some external situation. A change in the environment may bring about a cure. This method can be used in such cases as these—a boy who is competing too hard with an older brother and his friends; a girl with a masculinity complex based on a home atmosphere which is exclusively male. In these cases, there are changes which can be brought about in the external environment that will have some effect on the basic difficulty. But pure milieu therapy is not commonly employed as such. Its weakness lies in the fact that in dealing with the child's difficulty one has also to deal with other people about him who need also to shift their attitudes to make the environmental changes effective. In many instances environmental therapy has to be supplemented by additional psychotherapy of the parents in order to bring about the desired ends.

The second method of therapy, *physical or organic therapy*, is used in those cases where the child has a physiological deficiency of some sort which is causing a behavior disturbance. Situations in which children are handicapped by visual and motor deficiencies are comparatively well understood. Less well known are those irregularities of the physiological functions due to glandular disturbances, such as are manifest in situations where one finds stealing caused by carbohydrate deficiency, or immaturity due to lack of development of the sex glands. We are now in the phase where attention is being paid to the more obvious glandular problems. The next step is the study of more subtle glandular disturbances.

In contrast to these first two methods, though the division is an artificial one, is the method of *psychotherapy, or internal therapy*. This deals with psychic problems within the patient, those having to do with the way he feels, thinks or acts. There are several types of procedure within this general field which can be used either alone or in combination. There is pure *feeling or affect therapy*, where the patient is given a chance to release his feelings directly in play. This

method is helpful, for example, in such cases as that of a three-year-old boy who showed extreme negativism and temper tantrums. This seemed to be in response to high pressure in the environment; he had been given no chance to be really a child. His behavior difficulties were modified by allowing him to act himself out in a "regressive" type of play, that is, by getting himself very dirty, messing around with clay, etc., by going through all the earlier phases of developmental activity which had been denied him. With this method, changes of behavior are brought about directly with the patient. No attempt is made to give him insight into his difficulties and nothing is done to change the attitude of the parents.

In contrast to this method is *intellectual therapy*, a method which was much used in earlier days, modeled on the Socratic sort of interview. This is largely an appeal to reason. The psychiatrist tries to show the patient that his behavior is unreasonable and that there is a better course of correct behavior to be followed. Dr. Levy believes that this method of treatment has been proved to be least adequate. The intellectual attack, in itself, seems to be the weakest of all in effecting personality changes. In its best form it can be viewed as "consultation therapy" where the relation between therapist and patient is somewhat like that of two doctors, a specialist and a general practitioner, consulting together about a given medical problem.

In addition to these methods is the one of *insight therapy*, which attempts to discover the genetic factors of behavior patterns. And Dr. Levy mentions three other types of treatment which are combinations of affect and insight therapy—relationship, attitude and psychoanalytic therapy. In *relationship therapy* the treatment is based on the idea that the changes of attitude which occur between the child and the therapist will carry over and generally affect his attitude toward all the other people in his environment. For example, a child who has changed his attitude toward the doctor from one of opposition to compliance would also change his attitude toward his father, becoming cooperative instead of rebellious. The "feeling" side of such a situation is clear, since it is the emotional aspect which is being dealt with constantly. *Attitude therapy* has a similar basis and also depends on insight. It is an attempt to get at the basic patterns of behavior, as well as to release feelings born out of the situation. In the case, for example, of a difficult mother-child relationship where the child has assumed the domineering rôle, the mother claimed that she had always come out badly in every relationship she had. After some work, she came to see that all her difficulties, including those with her child, had been determined by her early relations with her stepmother in which she had established a pattern of passive behavior which she felt compelled to repeat in all her later contacts.

The last type, *psychoanalytic therapy*, is a combination of insight, affect and suggestion therapy developed to the highest degree. Here Dr. Levy is aware of the attack on psychoanalysis implied in Dr. Kanner's criticism of the method of treatment in which a child who comes for help with a simple problem is plunged into a "bathosphere" of "deep" treatment. Any therapy is deep, says Dr. Levy, if it accomplishes its purpose. Obviously, as a method of treatment for every child, he feels that psychoanalysis would be ridiculous (and impossible practically) and in some cases even criminal. But there are many extreme cases where it is definitely indicated and the only method which can be successful. He gives as an example the case of an eight-and-a-half-year-old boy who had attempted suicide, tried to kill his sister, and showed many other extreme manifestations of behavior disorders. These difficulties were found to be due to obscure causes in his early childhood. In another case Dr. Levy cites, a boy's abnormal fear of the dark, apparently aroused by a specific episode, was found to be associated with and determined by deep-seated anxieties about himself and his whole future in the world. Serious problems such as these require psychoanalytic therapy which must be deep and of long duration to allow the therapist the greatest amount of freedom in handling the case.

In summing up, Dr. Levy concludes by emphasizing that there are various methods of psychotherapy, that different cases call for different methods and that no one method, no matter how skilfully employed, can work out successfully in every case.

Dr. Caroline Zachry approaches the topic of psychotherapy from the field of education and focuses her attention especially on the treatment of adolescents. She describes the marked physiological, psychological, emotional and social changes that characterize the adolescent period and the many resulting adjustments which the adolescent has to make.

To what extent can the school curriculum help adolescents make these adjustments? Dr. Zachry thinks that there are many areas in which the school can give young people facts and information to answer some of their questions and relieve some of their

anxieties. The curriculum can help them to understand what is happening in their physical growth, what bodily changes are taking place, and what are the normal ranges of growth. The art department can offer opportunities for release and a new understanding and appreciation of the beauty of the body. The social sciences can enlighten them on the changing rôles of men and women in the modern world, and help them to meet a variety of other social and economic problems with interest and understanding. The work in English can offer illustrative material to show the many ways in which people have solved the eternal emotional problems.

Training through the intellect, however, is not enough, for emotional difficulties are never solved through facts alone, either for the adolescent or for anyone else. Dr. Zachry feels that the school has the further job of helping young people to work out their personal relationships. The adults who are in contact with adolescents and to whom they will turn for help, ought to be people who understand the dynamics of behavior. They should be able to determine, when these boys and girls are in difficulty, whether the conflict is normal in our difficult society or whether it is neurotic. If it is neurotic with definite dangers ahead, it is the responsibility of the school to see that the young person gets to a therapist who can help him.

In treating adolescents there are some very special problems. In the first place, the adolescent is neither child nor adult, but one who shifts from one to the other. The essence of his struggle is his need to grow up. In therapeutic contacts with him he should be permitted to make as many decisions as he can handle, and the treatment should be adult therapy. The adolescent often comes to the therapist not of his own volition but because he is brought there by some person in authority, his parents or his teacher. The job, then, is to secure a rapport which will make it possible for him to state his difficulties easily, and to get him to assume some responsibility for getting his problems straightened out.

For many young people, the sex of the therapist has particular significance. The adolescent is usually looking for some adult on whom he can pattern himself, an adult whom he can take as his ego ideal. By and large, it is better for an adolescent to go to a therapist of the same sex, unless there is some special situation in the family which indicates that he should do otherwise. In spite of these specific problems, however, Dr. Zachry thinks that this age is an exceedingly profitable period in which to do therapeutic work, and that the upper high school and college years are particularly fruitful. And she stresses the great need of educators to work with people who have experience in therapy when they are planning the education of children. We heartily endorse her plea that those "who are well grounded in medicine, psychiatry, education, psychology and sociology get together and pool their experiences with children, and do the planning together." In this way both education and therapy would profit by the shared understanding of those who approach the study of children from many different points of view.

ALL the speakers at this session agreed in a fundamental emphasis on the need for individual remedial work to help the many children who have behavior difficulties. They did not attempt to answer directly the question, "When is a child a problem child?" Obviously there was not enough time for an adequate discussion of this very involved and subtle point, because each case usually has to be considered individually. The question was met indirectly in the choice of the case material used as illustrations. Their primary concern was an evaluation of the kinds and methods of treatment.

Whatever controversy there was, centered around the specific problem of how far psychoanalytic concepts and methods should be used. Questions from several of the parents who participated in the discussion showed that they are deeply interested in this phase of work. They are also concerned with the problem of how far parents may trust their own understanding and intuition, and at what point they should turn to the psychiatrist for help.

MATERNITY

I knew an hour of weakness
When it seemed I was a child again
And longed to feel the comfort
Of my mother's arms.
But in that hour my own child
Laid her head against my head and wept.
Her hot tears wrought a miracle
And I was healed,
Finding myself once more a woman.

HELEN G. STERNAU

Intelligence Testing Today

Chairman: **Goodwin Watson;** *Speakers:* **Walter S. Neff, Irving D. Lorge**
Parent Discussants: Mrs. Ralph Childs, Slava Dunn, Mrs. Milton Hartigan, Mrs. Frank E. Karelsen, Jr., Martha Ross Leigh, Mrs. Hugh Grant Straus

What do intelligence tests measure? What do they fail to measure? Researches and experimentation regarding the "constancy of the I.Q." Effects of environment in modifying native endowment.

A LITTLE over thirty years ago, two French educators, Binet and Simon, were seeking some test to discover and separate the backward, subnormal and feebleminded in the French public schools, and thus began the pioneer work in what is now called mental testing. Their work in this field of psychology has made an enormous impact on general education and vocational guidance.

As Dr. Lorge points out, intelligence testing today is little further advanced in its techniques or definitions than it was twenty years ago. The latest intelligence tests are still made up of a sampling of tasks and processes to which certain responses must be made. Such responses can be scored in terms of some standard of correctness. The number of such correct responses can be weighted or valued against some norm as a reference point in order to give a relative measure of achievement. The relation of an individual's measurement to the norm is used as a basis for predicting future development or judging his standing among others in his group. Such measurements are far from perfect, in the sense that the persons tested vary from day to day, that examiners vary within themselves and from one another, that tests and scales vary among themselves, and that the inferences made from these results are not purely logical, but only probable.

Intelligence testing today differs from that in 1920 only in terms of the tests available, the larger number of examiners, and the wider popular acceptance of the idea. Today there are tests claiming to measure intelligence in babies from one to twelve months, as well as from one to five years, extending the age range considerably downward from the original Binet-Simon tests. There are tests purporting to measure intelligence in the blind and the deaf, tests to measure intelligence in various races. Today we have more tests than we had in 1920—all in all, about 500 different tests of intelligence.

Dr. Lorge emphasizes the fact that "intellect—that is, native intellect—can never be measured directly, but only indirectly. At best, we may get some indications of performance in test situations. Every test situation is an environmental task. All other things being equal, the assumption is made that persons within the same environment can be differentiated according to their test performances. If this assumption be false, or even partly false, the test performance will not clearly differentiate individuals. Moreover, test situations should ideally be a sample of all possible environmental tasks. If the sample of the test situations be biased, let us say, in favor of an urban group, or in favor of an English-speaking group, or in favor of a group of high social and high economic standard, the measures derived from such tests will be biased or prejudiced, or at least partially invalid. Tests of intelligence measure a person's ability to deal with aspects of his environment *at the time and up to the time of testing.*"

One very significant point which Dr. Lorge emphasizes is that there is no getting around the fact that the I.Q. test score is a measure of the environment. "In the hands of a trained examiner, the scores can be used to yield fairly good estimates of current and potential mental ability. In his interpretation of a test score, a trained examiner will consider not only the emotional adjustment of the child at the time of the test, but also his usual environment up to the time of the test. The examiner knows that rapport and environment make a difference in test results. Should a child be moved from a deprivational environment to a more favorable environment, and particularly if the superior environment has in it the kind of stimulation and experiences which are scored in intelligence tests, it is to be expected that the measure derived from such an intelligence test will be higher than it was in the previous deprivational environment. Within any fairly homogeneous environment, using tests which are a sampling of the experiences such an environment affords, differences in test scores are interpreted as evidences of differences in native intellect. And in the age range from six to fifteen, on the basis of good intelligence test scores, there is a tendency for the same person to obtain approximately the same I.Q. rating on the successive administration of the same

test. This tendency for repeated I.Q.'s to be approximately equivalent has been interpreted as evidence for some basic differences among individuals in their genetic make-up. You may be able to change a person's test score by special stimulation, but in that case, the score should be interpreted in terms of the special stimulation, and not on the basis of genetics or environment."

THE present situation in intelligence testing is summarized by Dr. Lorge thus: "Intelligence testing today is being subjected to some doubts by those who do not know all the facts. At present, the quarrel about what various intelligence tests measure is still a technician's battle. When the barometer was first invented, several barometers gave substantially different readings at the same time and place. The technicians quarrelled long and lustily about what they were measuring until other technicians improved the instruments. We may never have perfect instruments for measuring intelligence—but we sooner or later will have better ones. Until that time comes, intelligence testing, today and later, should be left in the hands of trained mental examiners whose interpretations will be more indicative of the future of a child than will be a lay interpretation of the I.Q. Shifts in environment will affect the test score, but, up to now, we do not know whether basic genetic factors will be changed."

Dr. Neff, too, suggests that it is important to emphasize the fact that psychologists in general agree that mental tests provide approximate though reasonably adequate measures of the level and scope of mental ability, but only *at the time at which the test is administered*. For it is here that we begin to enter the sphere of disagreement. There are two main problems here. First, on the level of ability—is a given child superior, inferior, or average with respect to other children? Second, the source and stability of present level—what factors produce given levels of superiority or inferiority, and under what conditions can we expect a child to maintain himself at a given level? This second problem centers about the basic question as to what degree the I.Q. variability is due to variation in native endowment or to variation in education, cultural opportunities, and experiences.

What are the facts? Ever since Binet's early work it has been well known that the intelligence test scores of children tend to be distributed in groups according to the social or occupational status of their parents; *i.e.*, that the children of professional workers tend to have the highest I.Q. and unskilled workers the lowest. Dr. Neff believes that the I.Q. variance is neither entirely or predominantly due to *extremes* in environmental or hereditary factors. He thinks that the accumulation of data in recent studies indicates that *group* differences in I.Q. which are related to such factors as social position, income, or race, can plausibly be laid at the door of environment. There are three lines of evidence which bear upon this problem: (1) The constancy or inconstancy of the I.Q. (2) The critical studies of the effect of changed environment on the I.Q. (3) A consideration of the procedures and methods of mental testing.

In the field of constancy of the I.Q., most of the studies, particularly where the test-retest interval is about one year and where the children studied are normal, indicate that the average change in I.Q. is about five points—certainly well within the probable error of the Stanford-Binet test. But, as any student of elementary statistics knows, where there is an average there must be a range. And in these studies, the range of change is at least 20 points, and, where the test-retest interval is large, individual cases of over 30 point differences have been observed. It would be a fair question to ask what factors were operating to produce these enormous changes in individuals, particularly where studies were well controlled. We have no right to assume that environment works uniformly for all members of a group. Until we know more of the events which lead up to these large individual changes, we are not justified in assuming the conclusion of most of the workers in this field, that the I.Q. is relatively constant. Rather, we might discover that the I.Q. remains relatively the same only as long as the complicated relation between the individual and his environment remains relatively the same, but changes with any marked shift in the total situation.

Some light may be shed on the conditions which produce variations in I.Q. if we study some extreme situations. Dr. Neff cites an interesting study by Hugh Gordon who investigated English children at the lowest available extreme of social environment. These children, who live with their parents on canal boats, scored a mean I.Q. of 70 on the 1916 revision of the Binet test, and, moreover, appeared to lose in I.Q. the older they got. Those tested at the age of five averaged 90, while those at age twelve averaged 60 in I.Q. More recently, Asher administered intelligence tests to all the children of five isolated and culturally backward Kentucky mountain counties and obtained a somewhat similar result. These children also averaged about 70 as compared to the theoretical

norm of 100, and as a group scored 84 at age 7 and 60 at the age of fifteen. These two studies, and several similar ones in this field, indicate that continued exposure to a very inferior environment apparently brings about average losses of from 20 to 30 points in I.Q.

AT THE more favorable extreme of environment, it is only fair to consider the series of studies by Wellman, Skeels, and their co-workers in the University of Iowa. These workers report that children from relatively superior homes who in addition, receive the benefits of preschool training, show large group gains in I.Q.—about 20 to 30 points with some individual cases of gains as large as 50 or 60 points. Now, it should be emphasized that the significance and validity of these results are still being debated, and that many authorities in this field would like to know more about the conditions under which the tests were administered and the precise character of the preschool training. But if these results stand up under examination, and they are rendered plausible by other data which follow, we have a clean-cut situation showing that low environment appears to depress I.Q. considerably below the norm, and high environment appears to raise it an approximately equal amount.

Very revealing in regard to factors making for changes in I.Q. are studies of foster children. This group is especially suitable for study because, under good conditions, the investigator can obtain information on both the true and foster parents of these children—an ideal situation for comparative studies. It is here that we can gain information as to what happens to the child of the factory worker when reared by a professional. But important conditions must be observed. First, the child should be adopted at a very early age (preferably below the age of six months) to ensure the fullest effect of the adoptive environment, and to eliminate possible selective factors in choosing the children for adoption. If foster children are adopted after six or seven years, no noticeable changes occur in intelligence. Second, the true and foster parents should be as unlike as possible in terms of social status and the difference, of course, be known to the investigator.

Only two workers seem to have carried on studies which fulfill the two conditions just stated. Leahy, in 1935, reports data on about 200 children adopted before the age of 6 months, and studied five to fourteen years after adoption. She indicates that the group I.Q. of this adopted group was 111, or about 11 points above the theoretical norm. Dr. Neff thinks this is much higher than would be expected from these children if they had lived with their real parents under typically prevailing conditions. If Dr. Leahy's sample were unselected, we should expect it to display a mean I.Q. of 100, or possibly lower, since orphanage children tend to come from the lower economic classes. This result is even more surprising when we note that less than one-quarter of these children (43 in all) were adopted by professionals, an equal number adopted by persons falling in next to the lowest category of social status.

Even more significant data are presented in a series of papers by Skeels, one of the University of Iowa group (since 1936). He reports on a group of 150 children adopted before the age of six months, who were an average of two years old at the time of study. They show a group I.Q. of 115, with only four per cent of the group falling below the theoretical norm of 100. Skeels also gives us significant data on the true and foster parents of this group, the former being well below and the latter well above the average social status of the country at large. Here we have what appears to be the ideal case: children of unskilled and semi-skilled laborers who, when reared in comfortable homes with considerable social and cultural advantages, turn out to have about the same mean I.Q. as children of professionals do generally. One would wish that Skeels' group were larger and somewhat older at the age of measurement, although both Goodenough and Terman report that the customary relation between social status and I.Q. is found in ordinary children as young as those Skeels has studied, and by the same tests. In commenting on the fact that the I.Q. level of this foster group is disproportionately high, Skeels observes that it may be because foster parents take even greater pains to encourage the intellectual development of their foster children than do real parents.

Dr. Neff refers to an interesting recent study of family resemblance. Since it is well known that there is a positive relationship between blood lines and similarity in I.Q., *i.e.*, that twins are more alike in intelligence test scores than are ordinary brothers and sisters, and that the latter show stronger resemblance than do parents and children. Those who hold that the I.Q. is determined by heredity have felt that here was strong evidence for their position. To decide the question, men have sought data on identical twins, reared apart. Now twins deriving from a single fertilized ovum are rare, and recorded cases of twins of this type reared apart since birth are rarer still. In a recent monograph, Freeman, Holzinger, and New-

man report the largest collection so far studied, nineteen pairs in all. This group is not entirely satisfactory because the difference in the respective home backgrounds of the members of each pair were not generally great. But it is the best we have. Mere geographical separation is, of course, no guarantee of critical difference in social environment. But some interesting results are reported. First, though identical twins living together differ on the average, by about 5 or 6 points, this group showed an average difference of over 10 points. Second, there was a tendency for the difference in I.Q. to accompany difference in background, *i.e.*, the greater the difference in background, the greater the difference in I.Q. The authors conclude that "extreme differences in educational and social environments are accompanied by significant differences in intelligence."

Dr. Neff urges that in order to be able to interpret the results obtained, one must be absolutely clear on the assumptions that are basic to all of the field, as well as the methods used. He suggests these three assumptions as basic. First, the assumption that mental ability increases both in level and scope with increasing chronological age up to a certain point, and then remains constant or levels off. Second, that the amount of education, information, and mental competence a person manages to attain is a direct function of his level of innate ability or potentiality. Third, that mental ability is distributed in the population in the form of a bell-shaped or "normal" curve.

WITH these assumptions, Dr. Neff concludes that intelligence tests are far from constant, certainly not for all individuals, and particularly where the test-retest interval is large; that continued exposure to a very poor environment brings large losses in I.Q., and, on the other hand, that marked improvement in environment brings about large increases in I.Q.; that the positive relation between social status and intelligence holds even for identical twins, where heredity is presumably constant; that the inequality of social and economic opportunity renders suspect one of the major assumptions basic to test construction, namely, that skill and information are a direct function of native ability, and that the former may be used to measure the latter. It seems clear that the wide differences in measured intelligence displayed by various sections of our population must be laid at the door of inequality of social and cultural opportunity. From this it would follow that practical plans for improving the social environment of people holds far better prospects for raising our national intelligence than do any of the programs advanced which place group differences on a biological basis.

ONE of the principal points of discussion after the speakers had finished revolved about the value of group tests, particularly as used in schools for the separation of the pupils into dull and bright groups. In answering this question, Dr. Lorge remarked that he thought group testing a useful method, but emphasized its fallibility and recommended that group tests be given frequently to allow for regrouping, because the validity of the grouping may differ from time to time. But the chairman, Dr. Watson, pointed out that "this grouping must be based on an acceptance of an educational philosophy that persons of a certain intelligence *should* be grouped together." Dr. Neff felt that this is a very complex problem for educators. If the tests measure to some degree educational factors of one kind or another, you would perhaps "freeze" a child at a low level if you grouped him on the basis of his first test. Group testing remains an open matter.

Since there is a close relation between test results and grades at school, isn't there some question of whether intelligence tests are not measuring what is taught in school? We all know the curriculum in schools depends almost entirely on verbal ability. Then aren't we saying, "Our children are taught a verbal facility, which is measured by intelligence tests"? Dr. Neff, in answering this question, pointed out what Terman had said—that about 90 per cent of intelligence tests and tests designed to measure information are about the same. After all, language is a very fundamental outlet and communication is one of the fundamental aspects of human relationships. So if language is not merely grafted on the child but he can learn to use it easily, perhaps one of the ends of education is thus served. We are not sure that the elementary schoolchild is merely gaining verbal facility. This may only be a symptom of a widening in fund of information, and general mental competence.

What parents particularly wanted to know was, if it is true that intelligence tests do not measure much more than verbal or arithmetical ability, if they do not measure such things as the ability to handle people and things, creative ability, and imagination, mental drive and all the practical things which count in daily life, why is just the I.Q. score given to parents? It is easy for them to remember the I.Q. *number* and forget the reservations. There are aptitude tests, but these do not have numbers—why can't intelligence tests include some of these other factors? And why can't

some of these abilities be included when parents are given a rating to remember? Dr. Lorge, in answering this question, remarked, "There are just so many psychologists and there is just so much work to be done, and everything cannot be done with the personnel we have."

In summarizing, Dr. Watson emphasized the general agreement that what we call intelligence is not uniform. As parents we may be more interested in knowing where the child is weak and where he is strong rather than in a general average, and "While the battles rage among the technicians, the one safe procedure for teachers, educators and parents is to use intelligence testing for *opening doors* and opportunities for children, rather than to close the door of opportunity for any child."

Education at the Crossroads

Presiding: W. Carson Ryan; *Chairman:* Lyman Bryson
Speakers: Scott Buchanan, Vivian T. Thayer
Parent Discussants: Ernest L. Colegrove, Clifton Fadiman, Frank E. Karelsen, Jr., Jacob Shohan

Discussing the doubts and bewilderment of both educators and parents concerning modern education. Do progressive schools give sufficient discipline? Prepare for college? Prepare for life-problems? Discrepancies between theory and practice.

THE TITLE for this session on education had been selected in the hope of sharpening the issues. But it evoked in so many the familiar picture of a fork or crossing in the road that the actual discussion took on the character of a gentlemanly debate on "progressive education" versus "liberal arts education." The implication that we have to choose the next steps, and that any choice irrevocably abandons all alternatives, rather obscured certain fundamental agreements between the two speakers, Dr. Thayer for Progressive Education and Dr. Buchanan for Liberal Arts Education.

Though they differ with each other sharply, both of the speakers recognize that important choices and decisions lie ahead and feel the responsibility of educators to the community and civilization as well as to the individual. Both hold liberty and democracy as fundamental values; neither insists upon too sharp a separation of ends and means; and both respect the classics and the humane tradition of scholarship.

The differences between the advocates of the traditional concepts of education and the advocates of progressive education are no doubt in part at least "temperamental." Yet we cannot dismiss these seemingly contradictory views on education as immaterial, even if we hold that many kinds of schools are necessary for the many kinds of personalities that make up our population. Although Dr. Thayer and Dr. Buchanan do not agree on the merits of the elective system, or on the implications of the concept of "interest" in education, they do agree that it is the responsibility of the educator to consider *needs*. It is not sufficient for the educator to deal with the public or with the students as a retailer deals with his customers—letting them have what they want. Here the customer is not always right. An educator has the responsibility of an expert, one whose business it is to find out the needs of the student, just as a physician undertakes to discover the patient's needs and then prescribes accordingly—not according to the patient's whims and preferences. Pointing out the absurdity of offering free election of subject matter to students who do not understand the choices they make, Dr. Buchanan affirms that the educator must take the responsibility for exercising his superior understanding and authority, taking into consideration the significant individual differences. Dr. Thayer rejects the implication of any uniform, standardized, formal education for all at any stage. He feels that the changing needs of the individual manifest themselves in behavior, in preferences, in responses to day by day situations. The "interest" which the progressive schools take into consideration is not an indulgence but an indication of needs, which the educator should interpret and serve.

The real difference between the two views seems to be that in one school we assume that we know in advance what an individual needs and how to serve those needs; in the other school we assume that we can do better by letting the needs emerge in an environment which encourages the individual to explore for himself. Considered as absolutes, both seem wrong—

for they lead either to rigid enforcement of traditional patterns, bound to be destructive to most children, or to equally destructive abandonment of the individual to his "natural" whims and impulses. Nobody need assume that the advocates of these alternative educational theories insist upon either of these formulas without qualifications.

The basic agreements are interestingly indicated by the apparent acceptance by both schools of certain of Dewey's teachings. John Dewey says, "If philosophy is for anything—if it is not a kind of mumbling in the dark, a form of busy work—it must shed some light upon the path. Life without it must be a different sort of thing from life with it. And the difference which it makes must be in us. *Philosophy* then is a reflection upon social ideals, and *education* is the effort to actualize them in human behavior." And Dr. Buchanan says of Dewey: "By one subtle shift in language Dewey redefined the whole educational enterprise. He substituted the word intelligence for intellect and with this as a translation formula he found knowledge in action, theory in practice, learning in doing and making. It was the right thing for a wise man and a philosopher to do but his followers got from 'Democracy in Education' only 'the lower learning' in America. John Dewey was transferring all that mattered in the ancient liberal arts to the useful arts, and that can be done by a good liberal artist, but the apprentices, not being liberal artists, cannot see intellect in intelligence, knowledge in action, theory in practice, and learning in doing and making. We thus have on our hands a full-blown anti-intellectual educational philosophy today, an anomaly in educational theory and practice and a serious threat to our social and political survival.

"The verbal trick in translating intellect into intelligence led to self-contradiction and nonsense which were not detected because of growing distrust of the intellectual processes in social and political life."

This is directed toward those apprentices, who are not liberal artists, but, at worst, sentimental followers who sense the existence of values which they are unable to manipulate in intellectual terms. Dr. Buchanan makes "intellect" the real issue, "It is only through the intellect that we may achieve freedom." He criticizes progressive educators in general for seeming to think that freedom and democracy ought to be "given" to people, whereas, from his point of view each individual has to achieve freedom for himself. The problem of education is to establish the conditions under which freedom and democracy may be achieved.

The alternatives do not seem to be mutually exclusive. When you set up an educational opportunity you do *give;* when you teach Greek and Latin so that the student may read the classics by himself, a purist might insist that you already give too much—let them find out for themselves; when you select the great books, you already guide the student through a jungle of all the accumulated books that have not yet been burned—that is, you save him years of futile floundering, you give him the benefit of your experience. The issue is certainly not in "giving," but in what we think of as the essential educational process, the mode of growth which distinguishes the human spirit. Dr. Thayer criticizes the liberal arts position not by minimizing the value of the intellect, or of the classics, but by protesting against the isolation of rational processes as if they existed independently of the rest of life, and somehow might be made to guide life without taking part in it. "The intellect," he says, "is but one special aspect of the whole personality." And again: "There is no sharp line between the intellect and emotion; these interpenetrate. Clinical psychologists have clearly demonstrated the subtle influence of both the emotional and the practical experiences upon the organization and the workings of the intellect."

As to the "freedom" which both schools prize so highly, the differences are again tied up with what we conceive to be the nature of the individual we hope to educate. Dr. Buchanan believes that the intellect alone is free. It may transcend stone walls and prison bars, and the passions of men. But the freedom which the intellect attains is symbolic. Education makes such liberation possible—for those who are capable of it—by making available the race's experience in this great adventure. Dr. Thayer, however, sees in this view of intellect either an escape from "the complications of contemporary life into the free and uncontrolled conditions of an earlier social and economic order" (or what is in effect the same thing, for those who can manage it, an escape to the security and peace of ivory towers and monastic enclosures), or else a separation of intellect from the interplay of humans in their daily relations which would cultivate rugged and irresponsible "individualists."

As for democracy, Dr. Buchanan's view is rather elusive, since it rests the claim to "freedom" upon intellectual capacity, which is obviously *not* equal. This would seem to reserve an intellectual education, unattainable for most persons, for the elect, and leave to other, unspecified agencies the task of civilizing other people's children. Progressive education con-

ceives the democratic individual as one who can enter sympathetically into the lives of those with whom he has to live. Equality of opportunity—the "democracy" which is given through education—does not mean identical environment or instruction for all, but equal opportunity for all individuals to develop their own unique personalities and capacities.

THEORIES as to how personality develops are again contrasted by the relative emphasis placed upon reason. Progressive education has often been criticized as using the "conditioning" theory as an educational principle. Dr. Thayer explicitly rejects the "conditioning" theory of education as not in harmony with the basic concepts of progressive educators, since it minimizes the distinctly human in each child. The stimulus-response formula, said Dr. Thayer, "furnishes a kind of devitalized education in which there is no place for either intellect or emotion, since all behavior is conditioned by something outside. This would reduce all education to a high grade animal training. It relies upon 'science' and statistics to supply contents and methods."

Dr. Buchanan sums up the liberal arts position in this fashion: that in order to free the intellect for its operation in the world there must be a "systematic emancipation." We must choose our external weapons and our individual tools. To change nature and human beings into effective weapons and tools we need fundamental media. At St. John's the medium is: *language*—man's most intimate external possession. The trained language sense extends man's imagination and therefore increases powers of analytic thought. Second in importance is *mathematics*—a language that transcends the mother tongue and provides the most powerful practice and theoretical extension of intellect. In view of a technological world, the decay and elimination of mathematics in education is disturbing. Then the *classics*—the major products of intellect which can confer on readers who really read them all the significance which their originators put into them. The old books contain more than old truths, more even than "eternal truths." They embody the very essence of the intellectual process through the ages. And if the student reading these great books actively follows the thought and participates through his own efforts in the quest for truth, he acquires these powerful and significant methods of thought.

Dr. Thayer also values the classics. Aside from the esthetic satisfactions they give, he thinks that they serve to identify and clarify the basic problems that have concerned mankind through the centuries; and they often suggest modes of attack, if not specific solutions, for our problems of today. "But this is quite different from turning to the old books for the final answers," says Dr. Thayer. "In our attempt to help young people of today cope intelligently with the issues of their lives we must recognize that in some respects these issues are unique and require perhaps unique answers. These young people are entitled to know what wise men in other times have suggested for similar problems; but they also need to be warned, as Woodbridge has warned us, that the men who wrote these great books wrote them, not out of contemplation of the past, but out of the richness of their own experience. Consequently the contribution of the old books consists in the sensitiveness of their authors to the novel as well as to the old in their experience and in their willingness, when need be, to forge new intellectual tools."

Throughout the discussion there was basic agreement as to the ends of education, but differing assumptions as to the nature of human beings, especially concerning the nature of the learning and growing processes through which education could operate to ensure more and more of the kind of adults that we consider desirable in our time. Dr. Buchanan's concept of freedom leads him to the assertion that "freedom is attainable only through the intellect;" and that if intellectual freedom is once achieved, all else becomes available. To Dr. Thayer this seems to be an isolation of the intellect from the other components of human values and human behavior. He would not minimize the intellect, but he insists that feeling and activities deserve equal attention and guidance.

"The progressive education movement began as a protest against the injuries inflicted upon child nature by the formalism of traditional education, and the attempts to improve and standardize that education through *scientific* procedures which equally ignored the essential needs of individual children in their social setting. It took into consideration the child's personality, looking to its growth and integration as the main objective. Progressive education lays great stress on individual differences. Its recognition of the *worth* of the individual is the principle which orders the life within the classroom."

Both speakers appear to agree that the importance of education lies in the answers it gives to certain general or philosophic questions: "The issues of education are the issues of life." As Dr. Thayer put

(*Continued on page 67*)

Parents' Questions and Discussion

Anna W. M. Wolf, Editor

My boy of five refuses to go in bathing and shows fear whenever he goes near the water. His father believes in the treat-'em-rough method and thinks he should be thrown right in. I am very reluctant to do this, and would like to know how we can go about this in a gentler yet effective way.

There are some children who seem to react well to the treat-'em-rough method. There is a chance that your boy is this type. There are also strong possibilities that this method would only increase his fear and anxiety, and strengthen his resistance to the water. However easy and pleasant going into the water may appear to us, the boy's fears about it are something very real for him. His fear may have come about through some specific episode which you may or may not be aware of—a sudden fall into the water, an experience of stumbling while in bathing or feeling the ground unexpectedly giving way under his feet, or even perhaps an early fright through slipping in the tub. We cannot explain all anxiety on the basis of such events however. Perhaps his feeling is the result of having been forced into trying to swim, and by your having expected more of him than he could do. Or his anxiety may be an evidence of general insecurity and lack of confidence in himself which shows itself in this particular way. Whatever the cause may be, the boy's feelings must be taken into account.

There are two things you may try. First, you might help your child build up a new attitude toward bathing, by letting him play at the edge of the water with sand toys, little boats, balls, in other words, allowing him to get familiar with water in his own way. The important thing is not to make him feel that he is forced to go in. Of course, don't shame him by comparing him with other children. It is best to let him work the thing out at his own pace. In time he will want to imitate the other children he sees around him and join in the fun. That is the time to encourage him and help him gain the necessary techniques. It might also help later to have him join a group of children who have a competent leader supervising their swimming, provided he is a person who really understands your boy's particular problem, and will not use pressure in his teaching.

The other thing you might do is to try to build up the child's general feeling of self-confidence. As he tends to feel himself more and more secure with his parents, his brothers and sisters, his friends and in his school, and as he gets the chance to develop in ways that are right for him, with plenty of opportunities to do things he enjoys, then he will be better able to meet difficult experiences with zest and courage. A two-fold program such as this takes time and patience, but the results will be real for the child, and much more lasting than short-cut methods.

I was recently called to school because my nine-year-old girl had stolen some money. I am terribly distressed; there seems no need for her to steal any money. I wonder if I should take her to a psychiatrist.

Although taking money is a kind of behavior which seems particularly shocking by our adult standards, it is not uncommon among children. Whether or not it calls for the help of a psychiatrist depends upon a number of things. The first thing is to try to find out what taking money means to your child. Taking money may be your daughter's way of attempting to get even with an unfriendly environment, or with some specific person. Or maybe she sees money as an instrument of power with which she can buy other children's attention and friendship. Has your child enough positive satisfactions in her daily life? By this is meant emotional, rather than material, satisfactions. For taking money, when there is no financial need of it, is the behavior of an insecure, unsatisfied child. Does she stand well with her friends, does she get along pretty well at school, is she reasonably happy and cooperative at home? Or does she feel inferior, slighted, resentful?

Psychiatrists tell us that the child who steals, is symbolically trying to steal love. Whether justified or not, your daughter may fancy herself not the sort of child her parents want. Or she may be reacting to some kind of emotional stress in the family. You might make a mental survey of the answers to some of these questions, and on the basis of this try to see whether any rearrangement of circumstances, including simple common sense devices like giving her money of her own, if she has no regular allowance, will prevent the recurrence of the stealing.

If, however, the behavior persists, psychiatric help

may be advisable. Taking money is usually a more complicated matter at nine years of age than it is at five or six. But in any case, whether the child goes to a psychiatrist or whether you and the school can work it out together, don't talk about it to other people. Your attitude should be such that it does not increase the burden of shame and guilt that any child who steals inevitably feels, whether she shows it or not.

My husband is concerned because our boy doesn't seem to be doing any real work at the progressive school he attends. He is supposed to be ready for high school next year but so far he has acquired no serious work habits, never seems to have homework, and doesn't appear to have covered much of the subject matter he ought to know in the eighth grade. It seems to be all just play. I am questioning now whether my choice of school was wise, even though our boy has been very happy there.

It should be said, first, that we are apt to misjudge the amount, and even the nature, of the subject matter children cover in schools which do not formally label their teaching or divide it into "subjects" as geography, history, etc. If the school is a *good* progressive school, basing its curriculum and its selection of teachers on real educational experience (not on lip-service to a set of educational clichés) you will probably find that your boy has imperceptibly acquired knowledge covering a wide range of subject matter. He may not know how to classify his knowledge under the traditional school subjects but he probably has more perception than children used to have at his age of the relatedness of his various bits of knowledge to one another and to his life.

Furthermore, a good progressive school will have taught him to be responsible for his own undertakings —to finish the job he starts. It will have given him the tools for pursuing and finding source materials when needed. These are the best possible work habits, though they may not be the ones most valued when *we* were young.

If your boy's school has not given him these things then it may be, as you say, that your choice was not a wise one. But you will have to judge that by some better measuring-stick than the fact that he does not *seem* to have what you or your husband think of as high school preparation. On the academic side, there are definite tests available. Find out whether he has been given the standard achievement tests for his grade at school, and, if not, insist that he be given these. He may rate much better than you think and in that case you have nothing to worry about. If he comes out far below average on these tests then I should certainly discuss the matter with his principal to determine the causes, and possible special help.

There are no tests of work habits except the test of time. I can only assure you that children from the better progressive schools evidently do make a satisfactory adjustment to the required homework and school work in the more formal secondary schools and colleges. The fact that, as you say, your boy is happy at his school, suggests that he is having a satisfactory experience and this is, in itself, a good start toward future school adjustments.

I cannot understand why a child with a high I.Q. (131) does not do better work in school. Despite this high rating, my boy's reports are very mediocre, even poor. It seems to me that with this native endowment, the fault must lie with his teachers. What would you suggest that I do about it?

One must remember that I.Q.'s (never to be regarded as final at best) do not pretend to measure what a child will do, but only what he is capable of doing in academic work, under favorable circumstances. Intellectual capacity is only one factor in any child's personality and perhaps not the most important. There are traits which have to do with vital matters such as interest, enthusiasm, capacity for hard work and many others which are as vital to success as pure intelligence. The world is full of people with excellent mental endowment who nevertheless fail because of their lacks in other directions. Perhaps these lacks in your boy are something you should consider and talk over with the school. It is well to remember that parents as well as teachers play a part in the child's school success.

It is important also to realize that not every child should be jacked up constantly to his maximum mental efficiency. Often, and especially at adolescence, children are busy with day dreams or with inner emotional problems which are of vast importance despite the fact that preoccupation with them may to some extent jeopardize high marks. Perhaps, for example, a child who has been hitherto quiet and studious suddenly finds great satisfaction in social life or athletics, and for him this new development may be more important at the moment than studies. However, I agree with you that the school has a responsibility here. His teachers should know in general *why* he fails to come up to expectations and decide either to let him alone for certain well thought out reasons, or take steps to help him meet his emotional problems.

Suggestions for Study: Controversial Areas in Today's Thinking About Children

TOPICAL OUTLINE

I. Habit Training and Personality

Contrasting views on the relation of habit training to personality development. Use of rewards and punishments. "Conditioning"—what is meant by this term? Importance of parent-child relationship. "Unconscious" drives and wishes. What is meant by repression? Contrasting views regarding its dangers.

II. Psychotherapy in Childhood

Childhood as a propitious time for psychotherapy. Different types of psychotherapy—how can the parent know *where* to turn? How can parents know *when* to seek help? Dangers, real and imaginary. The function of the school in child guidance.

III. The Status of Intelligence Testing

What intelligence tests measure; what they do not measure. The I.Q. as merely one aspect of a child's personality. Present-day opinion concerning the constancy of the I.Q. Recent studies which yield data on this point.

IV. Education at the Crossroads

Differences between progressive and traditional schools. What is meant by the idea that the school should be concerned with the "whole child." Does progressive education believe in letting children "do anything they wish?" In theory? In practice? Data available on the college success of children from progressive schools as compared to those from the traditional type of school.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Mary, aged seven, is very jealous of her brother, aged three. She is mean and sometimes slaps him. She constantly accuses her mother of giving him everything he wants, and blaming her for everything that goes wrong. Her mother tries to be scrupulously fair and to love both children the same. Can Mary be trained out of this state of mind by suitable rewards and punishments? Outline a suggestive plan. Should the matter be approached from a different angle? Outline a suggestive plan.

2. Carl is thirteen and tests show him to have normal mental ability and to be physically sound. Nevertheless, he is two grades behind his age in school, is apathetic, stubborn, inattentive. His parents and teachers have tried to help him with his work and to inspire him with a sense of responsibility. Do you believe the help of a child guidance specialist should be sought here? How might you go about finding one?

REFERENCE READING

"Our Children in a Changing World".....$2.00
by Wexberg and Fritsch Macmillan, 1937

"The Psychology of the Unadjusted School Child".....$2.25
by John J. B. Morgan Macmillan, 1937

"Psychoanalyic Study of the Family"
by J. C. Flügel International Psychoanalytic Press, 1921

"Reorganizing Secondary Education".....$2.25
by Caroline Zachry and others Appleton-Century, 1939

"We, the Parents".....$2.50
by Sidonie M. Gruenberg Harpers, 1940

"Mental Tests"
by F. N. Freeman Houghton Mifflin, Rev. Ed. 1939

"The 1938 Mental Measurement Yearbook"
by O. K. Buros Rutgers University Press, 1938

"A Bibliography of Mental Tests and Rating Scales".....$4.00
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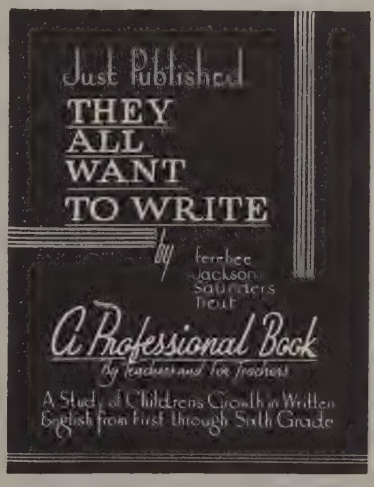
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Science Contributes

FEEDING PROBLEMS IN EARLY CHILDHOOD*

The following article is an excerpt from "The Psychological Aspects of Pediatric Practice" by Benjamin Spock, M.D., and Mabel Huschka, M.D. Originally published by D. Appleton-Century as a part of The Practitioners Library of Medicine and Surgery, this material has been made available in pamphlet form by the New York State Committee on Mental Hygiene of the State Charities Aid Association. Despite the fact that it is addressed to the medical profession, the pamphlet deals with such subjects as "Weaning," "Nail-Biting," "Temper Tantrums," "Fears, Phobias and Night Terrors" and other normal behavior in such a way as to offer invaluable practical suggestions to parents as well. Its discussion of "Feeding Problems" has been selected for reprinting almost in its entirety here.

The Importance of a Good Feeding Pattern

. . . THE infant's first pleasure is feeding, his first dissatisfaction is being hungry, his first relationship is to the person who feeds him. At later stages of development his attitudes toward himself and toward others become linked to other biological needs, but feeding remains the corner stone. Pediatric and psychiatric observation of children shows that when feeding has gone well it gives a basis for other life functions to do likewise. And when it has been unsatisfactory the tendency is for the bad pattern to be passed on to other functions. . . .

For an example of good feeding we can take a mother, happy and well balanced, living where medical supervision is not available, but blessed with an adequate supply of breast milk. When her baby cries she puts it to breast and lets it nurse as long as it wants to. When the baby appears satisfied the mother is satisfied too. If the baby actually gets only half as much in his last as compared with his first feeding of the day the mother does not worry because she doesn't know it. The baby sleeps, sometimes for a long, sometimes for a short interval but when he cries again the mother takes his word for it that then is the time for feeding.

Nature intends that the baby's hunger be shown by crying, that the crying create a tension in the mother that finds its release in nursing it, that the baby's satisfaction with the amount he has taken put an end to his efforts to nurse and that his appearance of satiety should satisfy the mother, thus releasing her for other occupations. Two things are very important in this pattern: (1) unsatisfied tension does not accumulate in either mother or child; (2) the child determines how often and how long it is fed while the mother plays a passive rôle.

Bottles can be substituted for the breast and a three- or four-hour schedule can usually be instituted instead of irregularity and still the feeding pattern may be excellent just as long as baby and mother are satisfied and the mother is passive. Feeding problems arise, from a psychological point of view, when feedings are too small or too infrequent, in which case first the baby and then the mother become unhappy; or when the mother becomes too active and tries to make the baby take what it doesn't want. In the latter case the baby's obstinacy and hostility become aroused and overdeveloped and will tend to persist. He learns to prefer to fight even if he has to go hungry to do it. In the cases of both underfeeding and overfeeding the baby experiences and in time comes to anticipate frustration and this will have unfortunate effects on his character that will spread far beyond his nursing period.

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The Part Played by Rigid Formulas and Schedules in Feeding Problems

. . . The science of infant feeding has made tremendous contributions to the lowering of infant mortality and to the rearing of well-nourished children. Preoccupied as it has been with qualities and quantities of food, it has inevitably neglected the emotional factors involved. The very fact that bottle feeding has been made so safe and efficient has meant a great relative increase in the proportion of children fed this way. Bottle feeding can be almost as satisfactory from the psychological point of view as the breast if handled correctly but on the average is more subject to the abuse of attempted overfeeding because the mother can tell when the baby has not taken the prescribed quantity.

Through the emphasis on the metabolic aspect of feeding on the part of research workers and teachers, the physician has been encouraged to prescribe exact quantities to be given at exact intervals with as much confidence of a predictable successful result as if the food were to go into a bomb calorimeter instead of a stomach. Mothers accept the prescribed formula and schedule literally and by and large apply it conscientiously, feeling that the baby *ought* to be satisfied by it and *ought* to take it all. If the baby in fact is not satisfied and the mother cannot communicate immediately with the physician there will be an interval during which the baby is hungry and unhappy and the mother is anxious and miserable; and if the baby consistently or intermittently does not take all that is prescribed the mother is encouraged to attempt overfeeding. This discussion is not intended to minimize the necessity of using all available knowledge of the scientific side of feeding in prescribing formulas but only to show the importance of flexibility in applying it so that the baby can feed within reasonable limits according to its inclination.

Underfeeding

If an infant is getting too little milk to satisfy it or is getting it too infrequently so that it cries with hunger for more than a brief period harm is done to both mother and baby. It is not good for the mother to have to remain inactive while her baby cries hard. Her anxiety accumulates. Part of it will remain even after she has finally fed the child and will interfere with her naturalness toward it in the future. It may even contribute to the postpartum depressions which are so frequent in this period. As for the infant, prolonged crying from hunger is obviously not intended by nature. There is impressive evidence from psychiatric work with children and adults that it does permanent harm to the infant's character at a crucial time in its formation, habituating it to unhappiness and to the expectation of a period of misery before it can hope for satisfaction. The anticipation of unhappiness leads to unconscious efforts to secure it and these tendencies are part of the foundation of neurotic behavior.

Overfeeding and Anorexia

Overfeeding means trying to make a child take more than it wants whether it has already taken much or little, whether it is fat or thin. It means deviating from the psychologically natural and sound pattern of letting the child at all times (except under extreme circumstances) take the responsibility of deciding the quantity of the food it wants. Overfeeding arises from overanxiousness, or aggressiveness on the part of the mother or nurse or from an effort to carry out literally a physician's instructions. Some infants and children will submit to a great deal of stuffing without protest, others will object. The latter will tend with time to develop anorexia and balk before they have taken as much as they need.

Balking may begin very early in infancy on breast or bottle. One can speculate in these cases on the possibility of an inherent tendency to poor functioning. Overfeeding is more apt to be attempted with bottle fed babies because of the knowledge that the full formula has not been taken. In some infants the first rebellion occurs when appreciable amounts of cod liver oil are given and may then spread to involve the milk. The most frequent period, however, is when solids are first introduced. The infant may refuse them from the beginning or may take small amounts for a while without enthusiasm and then rebel. The mother becomes more insistent and the baby more obstinate. Then one day the mother is apt to call the physician in some alarm to report that the baby is now refusing its milk too. There is another situation in which overfeeding frequently arises and that is after an illness during which the infant has lost weight. If the appetite does not return promptly there is a strong temptation for the mother to take a hand. If much obstinacy is aroused the resumption of appetite may be postponed indefinitely. . . .

Once started the tendency to overfeeding may go from bad to worse. The urging gets enough food

into the child at first so that it is seldom hungry. Its obstinacy provokes the mother's hostility which further increases the child's anxiety and hostility. The mother's efforts to charm or bribe put a premium on the child's neurotic behavior and afford it a substitute for more normal gratification.

Prophylaxis of Feeding Problems

Prophylaxis can begin before the mother begins taking care of her first baby. The physician can explain the importance above all else of the baby's deciding at each feeding how much or how little it wants, so long as its digestion is good. He should emphasize the passivity of the mother's rôle. He should present the feeding schedule as something to which the baby will eventually adjust, and the sooner the better, but give the mother permission to shorten the interval when the baby gets crying hard from hunger early. (Usually the baby will compensate with a longer sleep afterwards. If not the formula may need to be increased or the interval decreased regularly.) If the baby is to be on a bottle he can give the formula not as law but as his guess as to what will satisfy it. He can prepare the mother in advance for variations in amount at different bottle feedings by showing how widely the amounts derived from the breast vary. He can encourage her to consult him as soon as the baby begins to be dissatisfied. When the physician has made these points and ended by saying that his and the mother's job is only to satisfy in every reasonable way the child's legitimate desires and never to interfere with it unnecessarily he will often be greeted by a joyful sigh of relief. At least part of the mother's inherent anxiety and the apprehensiveness acquired from what she has read and heard about strictness, training, regularity and letting the baby cry will thus be drained off at the start of her most difficult period.

If it is necessary to revert from a four- to a three-hour schedule or to insert a 2 a.m. feeding, the mother usually needs to be reassured that this will not form a habit but that the baby will sleep for four hours by day and through the 2 a.m. feeding as soon as it is able to. The 2 a.m. feeding should never be withheld if the baby cries for it, for there is nothing which arouses the mother's anxiety or spoils her rest like listening to its crying at this time of night.

When cod liver oil is started the mother should be asked to report refusal, and, if it happens, a change made to one of the more concentrated forms of the vitamins which can be squirted into the corner of the mouth during feeding, or dissolved in the milk. The first solids should be offered gingerly and no effort made to urge them even if, in the unusual case, it takes several months for the child to get to like them.

The child should be encouraged to learn to feed itself early so that the responsibility of eating will be its entirely as soon as possible.

Treatment of Feeding Problems

The treatment of feeding problems is usually a slow process and to insure coöperation the physician should arrange to see the parent and patient at regular intervals. There are several approaches. The parent must be persuaded to give up urging by reassurance that the child will not starve to death. The physician should anticipate and let the parent expect an initial decrease of intake and of weight so that it will not be used against him. If the child is old enough to feed itself it may be desirable that the urging parent not be present at meals. The food should be served in an appetizing way and removed at the end of a reasonable period not in a punitive manner but casually as if it were assumed that he had eaten all he wanted. It is often effective to serve the food in miniature portions so that the child's impulse will be to say "Is that all I get?" instead of "Do I have to eat all that?"

It is important that the child be permitted to eat or leave any of the foods without discrimination. To hold back on dessert until the vegetables are eaten defeats the whole purpose of the program which is to allow the child to think of food as something it wants and not what some one wants it to take. The chief reason that desserts are preferred is because they are withheld to some degree. If given a really free choice over a period of time children will strike a balance between types of food even though they take only dessert for the first week or two. The physician can reassure the parent that fruits and vegetables are similar in food values and that if the child takes plenty of one it does not need the other. The same applies for proteins and starches. Macaroni, noodles, potatoes, bread or puddings should be substituted for cereal when it is a stumbling-block. All foods to which the child is unalterably opposed should be stopped and favorites served frequently. . . .

Improper handling in other respects than feeding should be looked for at home and corrected and any known causes of anxiety and tension removed.

SIGMUND FREUD

Born May 6, 1856 *Died September 23, 1939*

In recent years we have learned much about our children and ourselves. Perhaps the most significant and far-reaching single influence in this learning has been our recognition of the importance of unconscious motivations in human behavior. We have come to know that these motivations have their sources in early childhood, in the emotional experiences and feelings of security or insecurity within the family group. These profoundly affect our later life as adults. It is directly to the life work of Professor Sigmund Freud that we owe these concepts which have so deeply influenced our practices with children today.

Dr. A. A. Brill was Professor Freud's earliest translator in this country. He made on February 18, 1915, the first presentation of psychoanalytic ideas to the members of the Child Study Association. It therefore seems appropriate at this time to publish the following tribute from him.

A TRIBUTE

Harassed and more or less incapacitated by a malignant malady for the last 15 years of his life, Professor Freud nevertheless continued his practice and his literary work until he died in London, on September 23, 1939.

One can hardly estimate the loss which civilization has sustained through his death. While he was still living, he was repeatedly compared to Darwin, Copernicus, Spinoza, and other great figures who have had a profound influence on this world. Unlike other geniuses who appeared and disappeared on the horizon after a short period, Professor Freud remained, as it were, in the center of the stage for over half a century, and continually and consistently startled the scientific world with new and fruitful works not only on psychopathology, but on every phase of human culture. The ideas expressed in his last work, *Moses and Monotheism,* which appeared only a few months before he died, are as stimulating and provocative as those which he uttered toward the end of the last century, when he first began his work on neuroses. The last book, which is an epitome of all his works, shows the whole continuum, the whole evolution, from the childhood of the individual to the childhood of the race.

In a journal devoted to the development of the child, it would not be amiss to mention that as early as 1899, while analyzing "Dora," Freud became convinced that an individual's mode of behavior, be it normal or abnormal, is established in the early years of childhood. If it were not for this discovery, the study of the psychic and emotional life of the child would have remained quite barren. *For Freud laid bare the ergies or the dynamics of the child's psyche by demonstrating its libidinal manifestations.* The first four years, he tells us, represent the most important epoch of human life. Our later behavior toward men and women is altogether determined during that period.

I know that the Child Study Association has rendered a signal service to the community through its valuable contributions, written and oral, to parents and teachers—but I am presumptuous enough to say that it could not have performed its task as effectively and as interestingly without the tools furnished by Freud. A glance at its publications will confirm this statement. Without enumerating here the new and valuable concepts which Freud added to psychiatry and the kindred sciences, I feel that his greatest contribution was his demonstration that the child is really the father of the man. As the standard bearers of this truth, all students of childhood have sustained through the death of Sigmund Freud an irreparable loss.

A. A. BRILL, M.D.

Book Reviews

We, the Parents. By Sidonie Matsner Gruenberg. Harper & Brothers, 1939. 296 pp. $2.50.

In a time of deep confusion, of growing darkness, Mrs. Gruenberg's straightforward book on the values inherent in home life is another good deed in a naughty world. It makes war at its worst silly and inhuman, and, even at its rare best, only a means to preserving those precious relationships shared primarily in family life.

Mrs. Gruenberg's finest insight comes, I think, in her intuitive feeling for what is valid in child-adult contacts. She is not appalled by the mother who, on occasion, "smacks" obstreperous offspring—she knows (as do the children) that this can happen without spoiling the deep well of affection from which a child may draw social refreshment. Conversely, a coolly clean home, built on standardized child recipes, with so-much-of-this and so-much-of-that, may grow children dried up at the roots of their personalities. For the trick of right relations, like happiness, cannot be learned "by heart," but only *through the heart.*

This is no book of parent etiquette. It looks right through the nervous mother for whom a child's thumbsucking is not a playful or hungry gesture (or even a medical case), but a badge of social shame—something to fire the maid for! Nor is it a sentimental defense of misguided parent practice that tolerates unto negligence everything from wet pants to gory radio.

This book will help parents, and teachers, too, more by revealing the adult than by reforming the child. It solves no problems by the answer-key method. *What should Jimmie's allowance be?* Mrs. Gruenberg digs around that hardy perennial by asking you, the reader, five questions in return. From all these, which only you can answer, it is a process of arithmetic to compute the cash involved. But ten cents or fifty cents, the money must be his to do with —stingily, recklessly, wisely, as the case may be.

In such areas as the use of money, sex education, radio and motion pictures, Mrs. Gruenberg is at her best, a best distilled out of a rich personal life and unusual educational opportunities in the Child Study Association of America.

In the areas of adolescent behavior, changing folkways, careers for women, the author, like most people, treads more warily. These hard questions can scarcely be formulated, much less documented and brought to the point of useful generalization. Such problems are at the growing edge of parent education. Still, any person approaching these troublesome matters with the open mind that Mrs. Gruenberg's sincerity encourages is already on the road to solution. Here, indeed, "it is not so much what we *do* that counts, as what we *are.*"

GEORGE D. STODDARD, University of Iowa.

Reorganizing Secondary Education. By Vivian T. Thayer, Caroline B. Zachry, and Ruth Kotinsky—for the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum. D. Appleton-Century Co., 1939. 483 pp. $2.75.

As a key to the highly important work of the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum this book is a "must." It presents the working philosophy of education which permeated all of the studies; it summarizes in non-technical language the Commission's findings on adolescent personality. It offers recommendations for fitting our education to the demonstrated needs of adolescents and the world they must help to shape. For those sufficiently interested to go beyond this brief summary there are references at appropriate points to the more detailed studies. No parent or teacher can afford to miss Dr. Zachry's excellent analysis of the personality and behavior of adolescents, or for that matter, any of the forward-looking approach of the entire book. H. G. S.

The Basic Writings of Sigmund Freud. Edited by Dr. A. A. Brill. The Modern Library, 1938. 1,001 pp. $1.25.

This Modern Library edition collects between two covers the fundamental contributions of Freud, including *The Psychopathology of Everyday Life,* and *The Interpretation of Dreams,* as well as other important material published over a considerable period of time. The very low price of this volume of collected works gives every reader the opportunity to become acquainted at first hand with the writings of a man who has exerted such a profound influence not only upon psychiatry and psychology but upon literature, education and the social sciences. The work of Freud has especial significance for parents because his research into the beginnings of personality formation has so richly deepened our understanding of the nature of childhood. I. W. H.

Children's Books

VOCATIONAL BOOKS FOR YOUNG PEOPLE

THERE is increasing interest on the part of young people as well as their adult guides in obtaining more adequate vocational information. This interest has been stimulated by the recent New York State Regents' Report and by the National Youth Administration, both of which stress the need for a closer relationship between the educational system and the opportunities open to students on leaving school.

The publishers of books for young people have responded to this need with an increasing number of volumes giving graphic and stimulating material on many possible careers. Books of this type are more realistic and yet more inspirational than they used to be, and happily omit the moralistic preaching that formerly characterized guidance books. They are welcomed eagerly by the Children's Book Committee, which has selected a few of the most recent for review here in an all too brief list.

Vocations for Girls. By Mary Rebecca Lingenfelter and Harry Dexter Kitson. Harcourt, Brace. 358 pp. $2.50.

This book refutes the common conception of the limitation of the number of professions open to women. It gives a comprehensive survey of all possible fields, discusses each in detailed reference to its opportunities and rewards, and the requirements in qualifications and training. It is very readable, and has a stimulating, warm quality of person-to-person consultation, done with intensely realistic and human angles. This does not at all detract from the objectivity throughout in presenting factual material.

The headings of the table of contents are arresting. Such divisions as: "Ladies First," "Free for All," and "For Men Only—Unless," give the ratio between men and women in each profession. This is an authoritative book, and a valuable source of reference in vocational guidance. Its extensive bibliography indicates further study along selected lines.

N. A. K.

What Do You Want to Be? By George H. Waltz, Jr. Henry Holt and Co. 237 pp. $2.00.

Brief but excellent presentation of the fields open for young men choosing a career. Each chapter deals with one profession, and its various subdivisions. There are helpful suggestions to aid the interested boy, even in his high school days, in choosing his college majors. None of the careers is dramatized, but presented in the hard light of the amount of time and money necessary to prepare for it, the possible salary, and the chances of advancement. P. K. F.

If You Should Want to Write. By Alice Ross Colver. Dodd, Mead. 182 pp. $1.50.

It takes three people to make a piece of writing: an author, a publisher and a reader. To understand fully the relations of these three is to have the key to success in your pocket. Miss Colver's book is an introduction to the triangle. It tells everything from how to get ideas for stories to how to arouse emotion in a publisher. High school students beginning to write should find it valuable. Emphasis is placed on the development of skill in writing rather than on how to sell a manuscript, but the commercial angle is not neglected. There are lists of suggestions for reading, and also lists of markets. J. M. M.

Textile Workers. Nurses at Work.
Air Workers. Movie Workers.
News Workers. By the Picture Fact Associates. Harper & Brothers. 56 pp. each. $1.00 each.

This is a fine series of picture fact books giving in excellent photographs and brief text a graphic view of each of these fields of work, for girls as well as boys. While they will appeal especially to those already inclined in one of these directions, they will also interest many other high school students as realistic pictures of the world's work C. E. Z.

Medical Occupations for Girls. By Lee M. Klinefelter. Dutton. 318 pp. $2.00.

This book is fuller than the volume *Nurses at Work* in the above series. It outlines the opportunities in medicine now available to women and shows that doors are constantly opening for women in this profession that were once shut.

Like its companion volume *Medical Occupations for Boys,* published last year, it lists the various possibilities, tells what training is required and what the ultimate rewards will be. Both are good reference books for the vocational shelf. R. B.

Forestry and Lumbering. By Josephine Perry and Celeste Slauson. Longmans, Green. 125 pp. $1.50.

Good photographs and text present the fascination of forests and woods and the industrial and occupational possibilities in this field of work. M. R.

Aeronautical Occupations for Boys. By Capt. Burr Leyson. 207 pp. $2.00 (1938).

A detailed survey of the types of work in this field, and the requirements and training possibilities. Also includes some mention of girls' work in the field.

J. F.

In addition to books of obvious vocational intent, there are also a number of more romantic stories built on the vocation theme. Here, too, we find more accurate information and far less glamour than in the old success stories of the Horatio Alger epoch. Forerunners of this type of story were Margaret Thompson Raymond's excellent young novel, *The Bend in the Road* and Eric Berry's *Cynthia* books. Books of this type have followed in increasing numbers, and fill a real need, particularly for those who are already thinking vocation-ward, and who are in full possession of the necessary "grain of salt." A few recent books of this kind are herewith listed:

Sue Barton, Rural Nurse. By Helen Dore Boylston. Little, Brown. 250 pp. $2.00.

Second of a series dealing with various phases of a nursing career.

Penny Marsh, Supervisor of Public Health Nurses. By Dorothy Deming, R.N. Illustrated by Dorothea Warren. Dodd, Mead. 304 pp. $2.00.

A second book about a well-loved heroine.

Sally and Her Kitchens. By May Worthington. Illustrated by Marguerite Bryan. Dodd, Mead. 256 pp. $2.00.

A young home economics student's experiences in a wide variety of jobs.

Bright Heritage. By Mary Virginia Provines. Illustrated by Sherman C. Hoeflich. Longmans Green. 262 pp. $2.00.

Here a career has its beginning in a County Free Library of California.

Doll Cottage. By Adele de Leeuw. Illustrated by Cateau de Leeuw. Macmillan. 268 pp. $2.00.

Making dolls becomes a successful vocation.

Sky Service. By Elizabeth Hubbard Lansing. Illustrated by Roberta Paflin. Crowell. 302 pp. $1.75.

Being an airline stewardess leads to plenty of adventure for a young graduate nurse.

Patsy Breaks into Advertising. By E. Evalyn Grumbine. Illustrated by Jane Miller. Dodd, Mead. 324 pp. $2.00.

From a high school paper Patsy climbs to a responsible position in the advertising world.

No Vacancies. By Gertrude E. Mallette. Illustrated by Herbert Morton Stoops. Doubleday Doran. 312 pp. $2.00.

After many adventures the heroine creates her own job.

It's a Woman's Business. By Estelle Hamburger. Vanguard. 300 pp. $2.50.

Not a juvenile book but an actual career in fashion advertising fascinatingly chronicled by a woman who is successful in this field.

River Rising! By Hubert Skidmore. Illustrated by Benton Spruance. Doubleday Doran. 298 pp. $2.00.

A young school-teacher in a Kentucky mountain lumber camp faces many struggles in his efforts to study medicine.

Printer's Devil. By Adam Allen. Illustrated by E. A. Furman. Macmillan. 202 pp. $1.75.

A boy's introduction to newspaper work.

"Take It Away, Sam!" By Paul Wing. Dodd, Mead. 310 pp. $2.00.

A modern success story with authentic information about radio technique woven into an engrossing tale.

T-Model Tommy. By Stephen W. Meader. Harcourt, Brace. 306 pp. $2.00.

A resourceful boy makes good in the trucking business, in this better-than-ordinary success story.

River Man. By William Heyliger. D. Appleton-Century Co. 242 pages. $2.00.

The oyster industry of the Virginia tidewater, in a story of youthful struggle and success, by a popular author of career stories for boys.

MRS. HUGH GRANT STRAUS AND CORNELIA E. ZAGAT
for the Children's Book Committee

News and Notes

White House Conference

Decades of America's progress in the care and education of its children have been marked every tenth year for the past thirty years by a conference in Washington, D. C., called by the President of the United States. The 1940 Conference was held January 18 to 20. Its purpose, as announced by President Roosevelt, was "to consider the relationship between successful democracy and the children who form an integral part of that democracy."

The problems of "Children in a Democracy" were considered in working committees under topical groupings: Family Life, Religion, Educational Services, Social Service, Child Labor, Health, Housing, Minority Groups, Economic Aid, Economic Resources in Communities, Play and Recreation. The reports of these various committees formed the basis for discussion by the Conference.

Family life was seen as the threshold of democracy. "In spite of the great changes which have occurred in family life, especially in cities, there is still no more far-reaching educational institution than the family. . . . Giving the child food, shelter and material security in general is a primary task of the family. In the family, opportunity is also given to teach the elements of personal hygiene, health, and the prevention of disease. Relationships with the doctor, hospital, and other community services may be established. When the child reaches the school and church, for example, he esteems them in accordance with the values which the family has placed upon them.

"Less conspicuous, but more important by far, is what the child acquires through the family in regard to his relations to his fellows. Standards of conduct may be formed by fear or by example; they may be enforced by authority or by persuasion. It is in the relations of members of the family to one another that the quality of the American democratic way may find opportunity for its most conspicuous realization. . . . Self-sufficiency, enterprise, initiative, and intelligent obedience are virtues sought in children as well as in adults. The democratic family life consists of give and take, with freedom for each individual to express his own interests at the same time that he is tolerant and helpful to other members of the family."

On the subject of Religion, the Committee's report states: "The primary responsibility for the religious development of the child rests upon the parents. In the family he is first introduced to his religious inheritance as he is introduced to his mother tongue. Here the foundations are laid for the moral standards that are designed to guide his conduct through life. A child's religious development is fostered and strengthened by participating in the life of the family in which religion is a vital concern. Responsibility for the religious growth of older children and youth is shared by the church and other social organizations that are concerned with their guidance. . . . Despite the various efforts made by church groups to educate their children in religion, the religious needs of many are imperfectly met at the present time. It is estimated that approximately one-half of the children and youth in the United States receive no formal religious instruction." The Conference proposes therefore that "Practical steps should be taken to make more available to children and youth through education the resources of religion as an important factor in the democratic way of life and in the development of personal and social integrity."

In its report on Educational Services the Committee points out that "changes in our national life, in economics and culture, often require modifications in the scope, content, method, and management of educational service. The scope of education is gradually being extended to age limits above and below the traditional 6-to-16 period. The content of education should deal with the personal, social, and economic issues of the day; its method should take account of scientific discoveries in child growth, child care, and the learning process. And the management of the educational services should seek always to combine maximum efficiency with the requirements of individual initiative and freedom."

The importance of play and the constructive use of leisure time were discussed in relation both to public services and to commercial recreation in communities. Child labor was held to be still a serious problem in this country and the Conference urged the need for further legislative provision for safeguarding the wage-earning of minors.

Approximately 150 persons participated as consultants in the work of the Conference and the Committee reports will be stimulating and challenging to agencies and workers in every field relating to children.

Annual Meeting—Child Study Association

Reporting on its fifty-first year of activities in the field of parent education, the Child Study Association held its annual meeting December 18 at its headquarters in New York City. Dr. W. Carson Ryan, President of the Association, presiding, stressed the desirability of keeping the organization flexible, as it always has been in the past, in order to meet changing situations, and also emphasized the danger of letting pioneering organizations lapse just at the moment when the idea they have been propagating is really taking hold. He pointed out the realistic way in which the Association has met its financial problems, and mentioned particularly the importance of the Association's continuing its activities so that its resources may be utilized in the "human growth and development" work of teacher education in the experimentation now going forward.

Mrs. Sidonie M. Gruenberg, Director of the Association, outlined the Association's program during the past year and its plans for the present one. The Association, she pointed out, is still the only one that consistently and continuously integrates into one program of education and service the experiences and insights that come out of trying to help parents solve their daily problems. The services constantly yield findings which are shared with all who may find them of value. In this area, the combination of extracting usable and teachable understandings from the process of serving, and of making such understandings widely available, is unique. "Our printed material, our correspondence, and our face-to-face contacts reach increasingly not only parents with their immediate problems, but professional workers who themselves have to deal with larger numbers. We are reaching more and more the teachers of various categories, the health workers, the community leaders, the social workers, directors of institutions and agencies that deal with families, with individuals, with youth, with whole groups of people in need of specialized counsel and guidance."

Mrs. Anna W. M. Wolf, of the Association's Consultation Service, reported a steady increase in the number of parents served and the expansion of the service to include direct guidance work with children where this seems indicated. An important aspect of the Consultation Service is its accumulation of invaluable material concerning everyday adjustment problems which can be placed at the disposal of teachers, social workers, and therapists of all kinds.

Mrs. Pauline Rush Fadiman, Managing Editor of CHILD STUDY, reported on the past year's publications of the Association and its future plans.

A Modern "Children's Crusade"

A plan, non-partisan and non-sectarian, for securing help for refugee children from American school children—a "Children's Crusade for Children without a Country"—is being organized by a group of friends of children. The national chairman is Dorothy Canfield Fisher. Explaining its purposes and plans, Mrs. Fisher writes:

"Springing up almost as spontaneously as a wind-blown seed full of vitality, is a nation-wide movement called 'The Children's Crusade for Children,' sponsored by dozens of such great Americans from all occupations as Pearl Buck, former President Angell of Yale and Dr. George Buttrick, Helen Hayes, William Green of the American Federation of Labor, Walter Damrosch, and Professor Charles Beard. Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt, Monsignor Ryan, and William Allen White are to be on the Jury of Award. The goal is two-fold: first, to secure material help for the hundreds of thousands of helpless refugee children the world around—Chinese, German, Spanish, Finnish, Austrian, Polish—by means of a mite-box collection of pennies (or more if they can), contributions from our American children still safe under the protection of their own flag; and second, of the most vital importance, to bring home to those American children more appreciation than they (than any of us) now have, of the magnificent achievement in peace and security of the American political system. Because of our economic difficulties, and because we are so wonted to our political inner peacefulness, we have all come to take thoughtlessly for granted the marvelous political success of our incomparable Federation. The publicity being arranged for The Children's Crusade will emphasize in every possible way both the blessings of being an American child, and the fact that our political institutions will not continue to function if we take them carelessly for granted.

"The collection (to be taken up during the third week in April from our schools) will represent a thank-offering from our children for their safety, given to suffering children without a country, as a gesture of comradely human sympathy.

"The Children's Crusade for Children is being financed independently. None of the children's contributions will be used for expenses. A clear way is opened from child to child."

The address is Children's Crusade for Children, Empire State Building, New York City.

Study Group for Refugees

With the cooperation of various agencies, the Child Study Association has organized a group of refugee parents to discuss their special problems in family relationships. To these men and women, many of them professionally trained in medicine, education and other fields, the problems of major concern revolve about the different ideas of discipline and authority which they have found here. The perplexing problems of adolescence are particularly accentuated by the fact that these parents find it impossible to pass on to their children their own values, in terms of changed conditions. As a result many are too ready to abandon all values, and to accept all deviations from their own standards as "the American way." Another major problem arises from the fact that many of these women, who have never before worked outside the home, have found it much easier to secure employment than have their husbands. This means that added to the normal adjustments of family life is the strain of an altered "bread-winner" relationship within the family. Thus, while the problems under discussion essentially parallel those in other study groups, the emphasis is necessarily affected by the special situation in which these parents find themselves.

New Publication

A pamphlet entitled "Parent Study Groups" is being prepared by the Child Study Association for the use of leaders in the parent education field. Based on the experience of many years in group work, it contains suggestions for planning, organizing, and conducting groups of various kinds. It also includes suggestions for programs and a summary of topics that may be discussed, together with a general reading list. Those who are interested should communicate with the Publications Department, Child Study Association.

Art for Your Sake

Uniting the forces of the eye and the ear, the National Art Society and the National Broadcasting Company are cooperating in a program of art education entitled "Art for Your Sake," in which, for the first time in radio education, a nationally broadcast art program is supported by more than adequate visual material.

Every Saturday at 7:30 p.m. Eastern Standard Time, over NBC's Red Network, "Art For Your Sake" dramatizes the life of a famous painter. The dramatization is followed by a critical commentary on the artist and one of his works, given by Dr. Bernard Myers of New York University, who also directs the program for the National Art Society. The painting under discussion is one of sixty-four full-color reproductions offered by the Society at a price of six and one-quarter cents apiece. The prints are contained in four portfolios, with sixteen pictures in each, as well as illustrated written material giving biographical and critical comments on each of the artists represented. The reproductions are produced in six colors and measure approximately eleven inches by fourteen inches in size, and thus are large enough not only for careful study but may also be framed for decorative purposes.

The National Art Society was formed to fill the need for bringing the treasures of art contained in museums into the homes of the American people. During the three and a half months of its first national educational effort through "Art For Your Sake," the response by schools, museums and the general public has shown how eagerly the public will respond to such an effort.

Progressive Education Conference

This year's National Conference of the Progressive Education Association was held February 19-24 in Chicago in cooperation with many agencies, including the Chicago Association for Family Living. The conference, including the "Program for Parents" which occupied the first day, will be reported in the Spring issue of CHILD STUDY.

LILLIPUT

A camp for 4-to-11-year-olds

Lovely rambling house in ideal surroundings within few hours of New York City. Entire staff trained and experienced in guidance of young children. Medical care in charge of a practicing physician of many years' standing and trained nurse. Own farm products. Enrollment strictly limited to small group. Highly endorsed by parents and educators. 12th season.

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Lilliput Play School, in session from October to June, at above address, under same careful direction—nursery, kindergarten and after-school groups.

Radio Programs for Children

SO MUCH controversy has raged about the problem of children's radio programs, that the Child Study Association, in an effort to take stock of the present situation and current trends in this field devoted the luncheon session of its Institute last November to a discussion of this subject.

The general tone of the meeting indicated that we have come through the stage of merely condemning and complaining about what is being offered to children. Parents, as well as those responsible for broadcasting, are becoming increasingly aware of the positive part which radio must play in the child's cultural experience, and increasingly concerned with radio as a potential force to be used for the child's education as well as entertainment. We can no longer attempt to solve the problem merely by suppressing or censoring programs which have drawn parental criticism. It becomes imperative rather that ways be found for offering really good programs to children. This constitutes a challenge to parents and teachers as well as to broadcasting companies, advertising agencies, and creative artists.

Speaking at the luncheon conference Sidonie Matsner Gruenberg and Josette Frank of the Child Study Association, stressed the need for arriving at some dependable criteria as to what constitutes a "good" program for children. We cannot define as "good" only those programs which are designed to be "educational"—sheer entertainment also has a valid place for children as it has for adults. Nor can we "reform" children's programs by taking out all the elements we find objectionable—for often these have proved to be the very elements which make the children listen. We have discovered, to our dismay, that our carefully compiled lists of "recommended" programs have failed of their purpose precisely because they have ignored the important factor of children's preferences. A "good" program, therefore, must be one which appeals to children's tastes and interests and is, at the same time, acceptable to their parents. There is no reason why these two requirements should be incompatible.

The major broadcasting companies were represented at the conference by Dr. Sterling Fisher for Columbia Broadcasting Company, Mr. Walter Preston and Miss Margaret Cuthbert for National Broadcasting Company, and Mr. Mitchell Benson for Mutual Broadcasting System. While expressing their willingness to cooperate toward securing better radio offerings, these speakers pointed out problems and handicaps inherent in the system itself which have made progress difficult. Mr. Preston stressed NBC's new sustaining programs for children as evidence of its efforts toward better programs. Dr. Fisher pointed to Columbia's school service, "American School of the Air," as its outstanding contribution. This service reaches millions of children daily during school hours and is widely acclaimed by teachers as being of unquestioned quality and value. It is realized, however, that this program, however excellent and valuable, does not meet the problem of children's leisure-time after-school listening. Mrs. Harold V. Milligan, Radio Chairman of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, told of the organized efforts of women's groups throughout the country to enlist the interest of those responsible for radio broadcasting in securing better programs for children.

The Radio Committee of the Child Study Association is at present working on a reëvaluation of present programs on the major networks to ascertain what changes have been made in the nature and standards of their offerings for children. The results of this study will appear in the Spring issue of CHILD STUDY. Meanwhile we wish to call attention to a few programs which, though addressed to adults, should have special interest and appeal for older children at a time when our democracy needs, more than ever, to be valued and understood:

Cavalcade of America. NBC (WJZ)—Tuesday, 9:00-9:30 p.m. E.S.T.

Events and personalities in America's history excellently dramatized and high-lighted to point up their significance in American life and the development of its ideals.

Democracy in Action. CBS (WABC)—Sunday, 2:00-2:30 p.m. E.S.T.

How our laws and governmental departments have developed to meet the people's needs and in response to popular demands, explained in a series of dramatized episodes, with interpolations.

Americans at Work. CBS (WABC)—Tuesday, 10:15-10:45 p.m. E.S.T.

Interesting accounts of work in various occupations and of the little known workers whose efforts keep

the wheels of American life and industry turning.

The World Is Yours. NBC (WEAF)—Sunday, 4:30-5:00 p.m. E.S.T.

Under the auspices of the Smithsonian Institute and the U. S. Office of Education, selected subjects in various sciences—natural history, archaeology, mechanics, and invention—are made vivid through dramatizations and exposition.

In response to many inquiries received from parents of the youngest listeners: Ireene Wicker—radio's beloved "Singing Lady"—is back on the air on the sustaining program of NBC and may be heard Monday through Thursday at 5:15 E.S.T.

JOSETTE FRANK
For the Radio Committee

EDUCATION AT THE CROSSROADS

(*Continued from page 52*)

these issues, "Whence does educational philosophy derive its principles? What does it conceive the child to be? What manner of life companion would it make of him? What kind of society does it envisage for us?"

Naturally, the philosopher cannot be asked to supply either a blueprint or detailed specifications. As a revolt against traditional concepts and ideals of education, "progressive education" has had to answer some of these questions in sufficiently concrete forms to influence practice. For this reason, progressive education is concerned with the physical and mental health of the child, as well as his formal education. It seeks to apply in the classroom what we have learned from the physiologist and pathologist, the psychologist and psychiatrist. It *is* concerned with social adjustment, in which language plays so prominent a part. But it assumes that for most individuals the study of grammar and rhetoric does not assure that facility in communication which is essential in the daily living.

The panel discussion directed most of its questions toward the actual practices of education. It was recognized that the demands upon a progressive school are not so easily met as those upon a traditional type of school. It always comes down to the problem of obtaining adequate teachers. Teachers who have insight into personality and sympathy for the growing child's problems are not necessarily equally equipped in scholarship. Parents today want for their children not only the best that has been thought and said in the past, but the best features of every system of educational values that has ever been proposed.

Announcing a new series of four illustrated leaflets

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Simplified presentations of everyday problems

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Four others previously published and still available on: **Discipline, Keeping one's word to children, Encouraging children's success, "Hard times" in the home.**

Four leaflets for ten cents

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Factual, informal, tolerant and thoroughly modern in its point of view, this new volume by the Director of the Child Study Association arms parents of today with answers to their most perplexing problems.

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ALL OF OUR AIMS IN CAMP LIFE—the development of adjusted, happy, integrated personalities; the encouragement of individual variation—initiative, originality, creativeness; the giving to children individually a mastery of those basic knowledges and skill necessary for effective participation in an interdependent society.

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New York City, N. Y.

HABIT TRAINING AS A FORCE IN PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

(*Continued from page 41*)

character can be formed and reformed on a reward-punishment basis? Or does it become necessary finally to adopt the view that unconscious forces, and unconscious wishes and impulses are driving both their children and themselves in much of their daily behavior? What these forces are likely to be, constitutes, of course, a whole science in itself and differs moreover with every child and with every home. Where Dr. Hohman offers a formula and would treat every "trait," habit or symptom in a child as a training problem, Dr. Kubie approaches the matter by a search for causes which frequently leads into the hidden and secret recesses of unconscious conflicts. His approach is so different that we cannot escape the conclusion that the difference in the whole conception of human behavior on which it rests, is fundamental.

There is danger," says Dr. Kubie, "in treating a symptom as an isolated phenomenon, of treating it as though it had no relationship to the whole personality and special make-up of the child, to the impact of the child on his environment and of the environment on the child. The child is in the center of intricate human relationships and out of these grow innumerable stresses and strains, which produce all of those forms of behavior with which we are dealing. Any basic alteration of a "habit" will depend on a basic alteration in the child's relationship to the people around him. Not until these relationships have been studied and seen for what they are, can an alteration take place which is in any way permanent."

It seems to us that this view confirms the conviction which mature parents eventually reach. The good homes, the well-balanced children, occur not in those places where "training" is the center of interest and the reward-punishment situation is most skilfully manipulated. They occur rather where the parents involved are sound human beings. If they are sound, there will be some training it is true, but this will not be what counts most heavily or gets the results which are most fundamental and lasting. The ultimate soundness of the children's personalities will result from their freedom to grow in many instances through "painful," even neurotic, phases, in an environment of genuine affection, warmth and mature understanding. If these things are not present all the techniques for training, conditioning and reconditioning that the laboratory can devise will be largely unavailing.